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PRINCE EUGENE OF SAVOY AT THE TAKING OF BELGRADE.

THE ILLUSTRATED

HISTORY OF THE WORLD,

FOR THE ENGLISH PEOPLE.

FROM THE EARLIEST PERIOD
TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Ancient. — Mediæval. — Modern.

WITH MANY ORIGINAL HIGH-CLASS ENGRAVINGS.

"Histories make men wise."—Sir Francis Bacon.

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THE

HISTORY OF MODERN TIMES.

Introduction.

STATE OF VARIOUS NATIONS AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF MODERN TIMES.



THE division between the history of the Middle Ages, and that of modern times, naturally occurs at the time when new ideas and new forms of government were everywhere displacing the old. The bondage in which the human intellect had been kept during many centuries, was loosened by the great movement that led to the Reformation. The boundaries of the known world were widened by great maritime discoveries, especially towards the close of the 15th century. The whole system of war was altered by the employment of disciplined and regular armies, instead of the irregular hordes of chivalric times; infantry, in most cases, taking the place of the mounted bands. A wider system of rule, with leagues between nations, for the attaining of common ends, now takes the place of the narrower and separate governments of the Middle Ages. A large spirit of enterprise marks the commencement of a new era, in which a more wide-spread intelligence and an increase of know-

ledge show the progress of the various kingdoms. The course of history also moves faster; and changes are effected, sometimes in the course of a few years, that in the earlier slow-moving mediæval times, would not have been accomplished in centuries.

In the Middle Ages, the German Empire had been, without comparison, the most important, and the chief of European powers. Before the end of that time, however, other powers had arisen, and had attained a degree of importance, sufficient to enable them to stand forth as its rivals, as in the case of France, or to double its influence, if united with it, as in the case of Spain. The formidable Turkish power, advancing like a threatening thunder-cloud to overwhelm the fair and ancient civilization of the Byzantine Empire, causes the learning, long stored up at Constantinople, to spread over Western Europe, by way of beauteous Italy. Now Russia and Poland and Hungary play their part in the history of the new times. Of the nations that come prominently forward in the history of Modern Europe, we have now to speak; with reference, in the first instance, to their earlier rise and progress.

Spain and Portugal.



BLANCHE OF CASTILE.

FOR centuries, the kingdoms of Aragon and Castile existed side by side as separate and independent States; the former seeking to extend itself by conquests on the eastern coast, the latter by widening its borders towards the south. Thus the powerful James I., the Conqueror (1213–1276), united the Moorish States of Valencia and Murcia with his kingdom of Aragon, that had already been strengthened by Catalonia. The proud soldierly qualities of the Aragonese, the maritime and commercial energy of the Catalonians, and the fierce Oriental enthusiasm of the inhabitants of Valencia, all contributed to form a people possessing a strong national character and a powerful influence in the State. There was much of the ancient Roman spirit in the State of Aragon; freedom, the rights of citizenship, honour that was to be transmitted without spot or blemish from father to son, and warlike fame and prowess, were the things considered most valuable by the Aragonian. There was no high poetic excellence to be attained in the State; but Aragon, like Rome, preserved the records of jurisprudence and history; and from the earliest times could boast of statesmen and lawyers of great importance.

Peter III., the son of James I. (1276–1285), added Sicily to the three States already mentioned, after the Sicilian Vespers of 1282; and although the island was afterwards converted into an independent State, the foundation was laid of the influence of the House of Aragon, in lower Italy. The islands of Majorca and Minorca, and for a time that of Sardinia, were also subject to the Spanish sceptre. Very considerable rights were held by the Diet, or Parlia-

mentary assembly, the Cortes ; consisting of the deputies of the higher and lower nobility, called Infanzones and Hidalgos, of the clergy, and of the towns, already flourishing by trade, commerce, and manufacturing industry. Without the consent of the Cortes nothing of importance could be done in the making of laws or the taxing of the people.

Under the next two kings, James II. (1291–1327) and Alfonso IV. (1327–1336), these privileges, which greatly curtailed the power of the kings, remained in force. Under the next monarch, the hard and passionate Peter IV. (1336–1387), they were somewhat diminished ; but the chief judge or Justicia was, on the other hand, invested with the office of umpire in all quarrels between the king and the Cortes, for the maintaining of the subjects' rights.

After the short reign of John I. (1387–1395), Martin V. succeeded, and with him, in the beginning of the 15th century (1410), the Barcelonian line of the old royal house became extinct ; whereupon Ferdinand, Infant of Castile, was chosen as king of Aragon and Sicily, as the next heir in the female line, by the Cortes of Aragon, Catalonia, and Valencia. His son and successor, Alfonso V. (1416–1458), died, after a long reign, of wounds received at the siege of Genoa; whereupon his brother, John II., inherited the Spanish possessions of the house, while Naples was transferred to Ferdinand I., Alfonso's natural son. The reign of John II. (1458–1479), was troubled by civil war, and by a long fight for the succession, originally caused by the ambition of the king's second wife, who wished to secure the inheritance for her own son, to the exclusion of the Infant Charles of Viana ; whose sudden and suspicious death, in 1460, gave rise to formidable insurrections in Catalonia. John's son and successor, Ferdinand the Catholic (1479–1516), a politic and enterprising ruler, prepared the way for the union of the two Spanish monarchies of Aragon and Castile, which he had increased by the acquisition of Navarre. This he effected by marrying Isabella, the Queen of Castile.

Castile.



FERDINAND III., the Saint (1217–1252), through his successful wars with the Moors, obtained possession of Cordova, Seville, and Cadiz, which he united to the kingdom of Castile and Leon. His son, Alfonso X., the Wise, the son of a daughter of the Hohenstaufen Emperor, Philip of Swabia, devoted his attention to science and art, especially astronomy and astrology—from him the Alfonsine tables of stars take their name—enlarged the University of Salamanca, and drew up a book of law. But he was wanting in knowledge of the world, and lavished his treasures on luxury and display, and in the vain attempt to obtain the imperial crown of Germany, while his people were oppressed with excessive taxation, and great numbers of the nomadic Saracens spread themselves over southern Spain. After his death civil wars and combats for the succession arose, which for forty years spread misery and confusion through the country. But when Alfonso XI. ascended the throne, in 1312, he for a time



WAR OF PETER THE CRUEL IN CASTILE.

restored internal peace, and, in conjunction with Portugal, completely and permanently broke the power of the Moors by the glorious victory on the river Salado, and through the conquest of the strong town of Algesiras, which the Moors obstinately defended as the key to southern Spain. His son, Peter the Cruel (1350–1369), was of a fierce and violent disposition, and was in constant feud with his brothers and relations, his wives, nobility, and people; till at last his chivalrous half-brother Henry, surnamed of Trastamara, with the assistance of French troops commanded by the brave Bertrand du Guesclin, took up arms against him. Peter was defeated and slain after a bloody and decisive war, during which the Black Prince Edward undertook an expedition across the Pyrenees to his aid, and was succeeded by Henry II. in 1369. During the reigns of Henry's successors, John I. (1379–1390), Henry III. (1390–1406), John II. (1406–1454), and Henry IV. (1454–1474), Castile was a prey to internal conflicts, during which the nobility and clergy contrived to get the chief power into their own hands; so that when at last Isabella (1474–1504) ascended the throne, the royal office was without power and authority. Right and justice were cultivated no longer, and the land was filled with rapine, the feud of noble families, and bloodshed.

PORTUGAL.

COUNT HENRY OF BURGUNDY, who died in 1112, was the brave founder of the kingdom of Portugal, or the district round Oporto (Porto Cale, hence Portugal), which he had taken from the Arabs, and held first as a dependency under the crown of Castile, and then as a separate State. His son and successor, Alfonso I., assumed the title of king, and declared the country independent of Castile. Soon afterwards he conquered Lisbon, and made it the capital of the country and his seat of government. His brave son Sancho I. (1185–1211) gave strength and durability to the kingdom by his great victory over the fanatical sect of the Almohades, near Santarem.

He fostered agriculture, and obtained the name of the "peasants' friend." Until the fifteenth century the history of the country is a continual record of internal struggle between the kings and the powerful aristocracy, wars with the Moors and Castilians, and disputes between the kings and the Pope. Alfonso III. was succeeded by Dionysius (1279–1325), the steadfast champion of the country's rights against the encroachments of the Pope. During his reign Portugal grew prosperous in trade and navigation; and the country flourished still more under his successor Alfonso IV. (1325–57). The conclusion of this king's reign was disturbed by a civil war, for he had caused Inez de Castro, who, though of lower birth, was the lawful wife of his son Pedro, to be put to death in a monastery at Coimbra, that she and her children might not inherit the royal rights. Shortly before his death he was reconciled to his son; but the latter had no sooner obtained the throne than he took the most terrible revenge on the murderers of his wife, to whose corpse he caused royal honours to be publicly paid. His hardness and cruelty caused him to be surnamed "The Stern." During the reign of Pedro's son Ferdinand (1367–1383), Portugal was plunged into war and confusion by the ambitious intrigues of a designing woman, Lenore Telley, whom the king had carried off from her first husband, and afterwards married. Her schemes were frustrated, however, by Ferdinand's half-brother, John the Bastard (1385–1433), who obtained the crown of Portugal by the glorious victory over the Castilians at Aljubarota, near Lisbon, and bequeathed it to his descendants, Edward I. (1433–1438), Alfonso V. (1438–1481), and John II. (1481–1495). During the reigns of these kings the Portuguese commenced their discoveries and conquests in Africa, especially through the influence and assistance of Prince Henry, surnamed the Navigator.





THE BATTLE OF TOLOSA—CONVERSION BY THE SWORD.

Spain under Ferdinand and Isabella.



THE union of Aragon and Castile by the marriage of the reigning heads was only nominal, as Ferdinand and Isabella both ruled independently and prevented any amalgamation between the two countries. Yet the efforts of both were directed towards the same object, that of uniting the whole of Spain into one kingdom and reducing the turbulent nobility to submission and vassalage. In this design they found a judicious adviser and assistant in the High Chancellor Pedro Gonsalez de Mendoza, Archbishop of Toledo, and a still more useful coadjutor in the Archbishop's successor Ximenez de Cisneros, a prelate and statesman of great intelligence and energy.

The royal pair sought chiefly to lessen the power of the grandees and clergy; and with this object, the crafty Ferdinand the Catholic procured from the Pope the grand mastership of the Castilian orders of knights, and the right of appointing all Spanish bishops. The most important step towards the elevation and increase of the royal power was the re-establishment of the court of the Inquisition (1480), in which the king held the right of appointing the Chief Inquisitor and all the judges; for the court of the Inquisition, established at first as a terror to the nominally converted Jews and Moors (Moriscos), became, under the cruel Inquisitor Thomas Torquemada, a political court of justice, that not only directed its terrible weapons against heretics and "new" Christians, and provoked the most fearful persecution of all Jews and believers in the Mosaic law throughout the whole Pyrenean peninsula, but kept both nobility and clergy in a state of fear and apprehension, and imposed heavy fetters on the free exercise of religious thought. In Aragon the severity and cruelty with which the Inquisitor Arbues d'Epila applied the terrors of the Inquisition, produced such irritation that he was murdered by some conspirators in the cathedral. Never were the throne and altar united in so dangerous a league against the liberty of the people as in Spain during the reign of this formidable and ruthless tribunal. But in spite of the spiritual oppression of that period, the Spaniard looks back with pride to the eventful and brilliant reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, as to a time rendered illustrious by great deeds and the elevation of the Spanish monarchy.

The Oppression and Expulsion of the Moors.

FERDINAND and Isabella, having strengthened the royal power, effected the conquest of Granada in 1492, with its celebrated palace of the Alhambra, after a war against the Moors that lasted for ten years. The dethroned prince, Abu Abdallas or Boabdil, escaped with a small escort of followers to Africa, where he fell fighting bravely in a war with Morocco. In elegies and mournful war-songs the Moors lamented the loss of their kingdom and the sorrowful fate of its defenders. Fanaticism and the spirit of persecution was stronger than the faith of treaties. The promises to the vanquished of perfect religious freedom were soon disregarded, and the Mohammedans were allowed only the choice of leaving the country or of embracing Christianity.

The Archbishop Ximenez, who, with pious Vandalism, caused all Arabic books to be burnt, drove the Moors to baptism by scourgings and imprisonments. Many quitted their native soil, and became corsairs or pirates; in which warlike profession they carried on eternal warfare with their oppressors. The struggle with the Moors was bitter and merciless; for it was at one and the same time a war of race and a war of religion. Every victory was considered by their fanatical foes as a step towards heaven; it was fully believed that every earthly sin could be expiated in the blood of the infidel enemy. At a later period, under the despotic Philip II., a command was issued that the descendants of the Moors should henceforth renounce their language and costume, their nationality and peculiar customs. The oppressed people thereupon took up arms, with Don Fernando, a descendant of the ancient royal race of the Prujjades, at their head, in the vain hope of preserving the last remains of their religion and nationality. But after a bloody war of two years they were vanquished, but far from ingloriously, by the consummate martial skill of Don John, Philip's half-brother, and compelled to a mournful and reluctant submission. The clergy, however, still regarded them with distrust, and at length, in 1609, persuaded Philip III., the successor of the fanatic Philip II., to issue the decree that the remaining descendants of the Moors should be driven from the Spanish soil and sent into exile; a command which was carried out with the utmost severity. Upwards of 800,000 Moors, men and women, old men and children, quitted the land of their birth, their flourishing fields, and the dwellings which they had erected with their own hands, to lead once more a Bedouin life on the coast of Africa, or, as freebooters, to wreak their vengeance on the ships of their oppressors. The flourishing plains of southern Spain soon became a scene of desolation. Agriculture declined, industry was at a standstill; prosperous villages fell into ruins, and busy towns were depopulated; and where wealth and prosperity had once reigned, the land became a wretched scene of abject poverty squalor and misery.

The Latter Period of the Reign of Ferdinand the Catholic.

A cruel fate carried off most of the children of Ferdinand and Isabella to an early grave; so that when, bowed with grief, the queen passed away "to a nobler existence," their daughter Joanna and her husband, Philip of Burgundy, were recognised as the legitimate rulers of Castile; for, as has been said, Aragon and Castile were still kept separate. King Philip, however, died of a rapid fever soon after his accession, at the age of twenty-eight years; and his wife, after his death, became a prey to mental disorder. She fell into a deep brooding melancholy, and was considered unfit to hold the reins of government. Therefore, at the instigation of Ximenez, the regency was placed in the hands of her father Ferdinand, who had just returned from receiving the homage of his subjects at Naples. He provided his daughter with a suitable home in the palace at Tordesillas, where she passed the remainder of her days, a dreary period of forty-seven years. All public documents were made out in her name and that of her son Charles; but she took no part in public affairs. Ferdinand's authority was more firmly established than before; and as there was no issue from his second marriage, which he concluded somewhat hastily, with a niece of Louis XII., his eldest grandson, Charles of Burgundy, was regarded as his successor. Ferdinand had availed himself of the disturbances and wars produced in France by the "Holy



ISABELLA OF CASTILE. RUDOLF OF HAPSBURG. FERDINAND THE CATHOLIC.

League," to deprive the King of Navarre, John d'Albret, of a portion of his kingdom, and soon afterwards he died while on a journey to Andalusia (January, 1516), much respected by his contemporaries for his statesmanship and for his astute policy.

The Emperor Charles (I. of Spain, V. of Germany), and Cardinal Ximenez.

After Ferdinand's death Ximenez undertook the regency of Castile for the youthful Charles, who was in the Netherlands; and so zealously did he promote the interests of the absent prince, that Charles was recognised as king of Castile and Aragon in 1517, though Joanna still lived, and was not suffering from incurable mental disorder. The young king, however, after obtaining the crown, repaid the services of the faithful Cardinal with ingratitude, and filled all the influential posts in Church and State with Netherlanders. This provoked such discontent throughout the country, that during Charles's absence in Germany the nobility united with the towns in a rebellion, and, with Don Juan Padilla of Toledo at their head, demanded the dismissal of foreign ministers, the restriction of the royal power, and the extension of civil rights. But soon there was a quarrel between the citizens and the nobles, the former demanding a democratic government and the abolition of immunity from taxation enjoyed by the aristocracy. This dissension among his opponents resulted in victory to the cause of the king in 1521. Joanna, who had been temporarily liberated from her imprisonment at Tordesillas, was now taken back to prison, and closely guarded until her death, in 1555. From the period of her second imprisonment she fell into a state of idiotcy.

We have learnt how completely the whole Spanish history of the Middle Ages was associated with the "Holy Wars"; and on this soil also grew the romances, the epic-lyrical national songs, which, written to immortalize the deeds and destinies of certain distinguished warriors, left their impress on

the imagination and memory of the people. Many of these, such as the romances of Count Alarcos, have been translated into all languages. Among the most ancient specimens were the Romances of the Cid, a hundred in number, which were either transmitted from mouth to mouth, or written down on loose leaves, until they were arranged in several collections of romances in the sixteenth century. In these romances truth is mingled with fiction; and recent investigations have shown that the hero, Rodrigo Ruy Dias, called Compeador, "the champion," and Cid, "the master," was born of a noble Castilian family, and distinguished himself during the reigns of Ferdinand I. and his two sons. He died in 1699, and was interred with his wife Ximena in the convent chapel of S. Pedro di Cardenias.

The New Kingdom of Burgundy, with Lorraine and Alsace.



PHILIP THE BOLD (1363–1404), a son of King John of France, received from his father the dukedom of Burgundy as an hereditary fief. With it he united, by his marriage, the free county (Franche Comté) of Burgundy, which had formerly belonged to the German Empire, and likewise the rich Flemish provinces, with Malines, Artois, Antwerp, and others, the magnificent marriage portion brought him by his wife, Margaret of Flanders. The dukedom was also further extended by his son, John the Fearless, and his grandson, Philip the Good, who obtained possession, either by force of arms or by inheritance, of Holland, Friseland, Zealand, Hainault, Brabant, Namur, Luxembourg, Limburg, and other territories, and founded a kingdom which, in civilization, industry, and prosperity, vied with Italy itself. Charles the Bold, son of Philip the Good, who began his rule in 1467, obtained possession also of Guelderland and Zutphen; and after he had reduced the rebellious town of Liege to submission (1468), he entered into negotiations with the Emperor Frederick III., for obtaining from his hands the crown of Burgundy, promising in return the hand of his only daughter and heiress, Mary, to Maximilian, the Emperor's son. The treaty was to be ratified at a solemn meeting at Treves, in 1473; but Frederick was so disgusted with the pride and arrogance which the Duke displayed, that he suddenly broke off the negotiations, and quitted the town the day before that appointed for the coronation. Charles now became a determined enemy of the Hapsburgs, and allied himself with their foe, the Count Palatine.

The Duke Sigismund of Austria had formerly pawned the Hapsburg possessions in Alsace, Sundgau, and Brisgau, with the towns on the Lower Rhine, to Charles the Bold, to cover the cost of an unfortunate war. When Louis XI. of France, jealous of the increasing possessions of his powerful neighbour, Charles of Burgundy, procured for the Duke of Austria the money for the ransom of his pawned territory, Charles delayed the surrender of the provinces; whereupon the oppressed Alsacians expelled the Burgundian

garrison, and put the Governor to death. Charles then obtained possession of Lorraine, the capital of which, Nancy, he designed for his seat of government. He suffered a severe defeat, however, at the hands of the Swiss in the battle of Granson (1476), which was followed a few months later by a similar disastrous check in the battle of Murten. The Duke of Lorraine had now possessed himself once more of his lost kingdom ; and when the exasperated Charles made one more desperate attempt to assert his arms, the haughty Duke sustained a third terrible defeat in the battle of Nancy, and was slain while endeavouring to make his way through a frozen marsh, where his disfigured corpse was found soon afterwards.



HEROISM OF ARNOLD OF WINKELRIED AT SEMPACH.

Louis XI. now claimed the dukedom of Burgundy as a vacant fief of the French crown, and also meditated the acquisition of other territory. Whereupon, Mary of Burgundy married the chivalrous Maximilian of Austria, who defeated the French in the first battle of Guinegate. After the death of Mary, who had been intended by her father, Charles of Burgundy, for Maximilian of Austria, Louis XI. renewed his intrigues to incite the towns of the Netherlands against Maximilian, who acted as regent for his youthful son Philip. Several of the towns wavered in their allegiance ; but Maximilian, by his decision and bravery, at last compelled the whole of the Netherlands to a recognition of his rights as regent ; and the French were subsequently decisively defeated in the second battle of Guinegate (1513) at the hands of Maximilian and King Henry VIII. of England. This was the well-known "Battle of the Spurs." Philip's Son, Charles V., inherited in course of time



THE EMPEROR CHARLES V. MAXIMILIAN I.

all the possessions of his parents and grandparents; and by the addition of Friseland, Groeningen, Overyssel, and Utrecht, united the provinces of the Netherlands into one whole.

Scandinavia and Schleswig-Holstein.

Introduction of Christianity, and its Results.—After the adventurous voyages and wanderings of the Normans and Danes had become things of the distant past, certain enterprising princes succeeded in raising themselves above the other chiefs or princes of the districts, and, by the union of different tribes, in establishing a kingdom. This was the case in Norway, through the exertions of Harold Harfagra; in Denmark, through Gorm; and in Sweden, by the Ynglings. But only under great compulsion did the warlike Norman chiefs submit to the supremacy of a king; and many who were discontented returned once more to their life of piracy, or sought a new home in foreign countries. Thus Rollo (Rolf, Ganga-Rolf, afterwards baptized by the name of Robert) with his bold followers made a settlement in French Normandy, while others began to people the distant country of Iceland. The history of Scandinavia in the Middle Ages consists therefore of a succession of struggles among the chiefs, who each believed he had an equal right with the others to the crown. The continuous wars of the kings with the chieftains of the Norman navigators, impeded the introduction of Christianity into Scandinavia. For although the Gospel had been preached as early as the 9th century by British missionaries and others, and several of the kings had been converted to Christianity, yet still, for more than a century, the worship of Odin maintained its ascendency over the religion of the crucified Saviour, and many believers in the Gospel died a martyr's death. In Denmark, however, Christianity most quickly made its way, through the exertions of Canute the Great. A little later St. Olaf attempted, with success, to Christianize the people of Norway and Iceland; but in Sweden it was not till the 12th century that the nation became generally converted to Christianity, during the reign of St. Eric IX. In the next century the Gospel was made known also to the Finns.

The Kingdom of Scandinavia before the Union of Calmar.

Denmark.—There reigned in Denmark during the 12th and 13th centuries the descendants of Canute's nephew, Svend Estrithson. Their reigns were sullied by bloody deeds and cruel crimes, and they themselves for the most part came to a violent end. With Waldemar I. (1157–1182) begins the period of the power and greatness of Denmark, which was considerably increased during the reigns of his sons Knud VII. and Waldemar II. the "Conqueror." Spurred on by the spirit of enterprise, and guided by the advice of the wise and energetic Absalon (Axel), Archbishop of Lund, Waldemar and Canute subjugated Holstein, Rugen, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, and other coast countries and islands of the Baltic, and cast off the feudal supremacy of Germany over Denmark. In conjunction with king Otto IV., Canute crossed the Eider in 1201, and after the victory of Stilnow, obtained possession of the country north of the Elbe, and forced the towns of Hamburg, Ratzeburg, Gadebusch, and Lübeck to recognise the supremacy of Denmark. Waldemar II. (1202–1241) continued the conquests of his father and brother with such success that he united all the Sclavonian coast countries on the Baltic with his other states, and was able to declare himself King of the Danes and Sclavonians, and Master of Schleswig-Holstein. But his harshness provoked anger and rebellion, so that when he was taken prisoner, while hunting, by the exasperated Duke Henry of Schwerin, who kept him and his youthful son in confinement for over two years, all the subject princes revolted from him. Waldemar, after obtaining his liberation by renouncing his supremacy over Holstein and the Sclavonian countries, attempted to reconquer his lost dominions; but the princes succeeded in gaining a victory over the perjured king in the battle of Bornhövede (1227). Thus the proud structure of the power of the Waldemars was shaken to the ground, and of all their former conquests Denmark only retained Rügen and Esthland; and these also were ceded respectively to Pomerania and to the Teutonic Order in 1325 and 1347.

With Waldemar's death there commenced in Denmark a disastrous period of internal dissension, which resulted in the gradual weakening of the kingly power. Waldemar IV. (1340–1375), an enterprising and vigorous prince, at last succeeded in restoring internal quietude, regaining for the crown its formal power, and uniting the lost provinces once more under the sway of Denmark. His daughter Margaret (1397–1412), who was married to Hakon VIII. of Norway, united, by the Union of Calmar, the three Scandinavian kingdoms under her sceptre. The "black death," which devastated Europe in the middle of the 14th century, spread such havoc in Norway, that the country was entirely depopulated; and in Denmark it carried off a third of the inhabitants.

Norway.—In Norway, where Harold the Hard in the 11th century transferred the seat of government from Drontheim to Christiania, there ruled for nearly three centuries the ancient royal race descended from Harold Harfagar, sometimes one king reigning alone, sometimes several together. During this period the country also was distracted by wars of succession, and the crown was less powerful than in Denmark and Sweden, for clergy and people possessed more extended rights. During the reign of Hakon V. (1217–1263) the supremacy of Norway extended over Iceland and Greenland, the Hebrides and the Orkney Islands. Hakon's son and successor, Magnus VII. (1263–1280), earned for himself the title of "Improver of the Laws." A regu-

lation was laid down for the succession to the throne, according to which the royal authority was to descend to the eldest-born of the royal family in the male line; which put an end to the frequent separation of the kingdom into parts and to the electoral claims of the hierarchy. On the death of Hakon VII. (1298–1319), the second son of Magnus, the male line of the Norwegian royal family became extinct; and the union of Norway and Sweden was finally accomplished, after some wars and contentions, under Margaret, the wife of Hakon VIII. This king died in 1380.

Sweden.—In Sweden also during the 12th and 13th centuries there was so much strife concerning the succession to the throne, that only a few of the rulers died a natural death. Even the powerful race of the Folkungs, which, beginning with Waldemar I. in the middle of the 13th century, gave peace and law to the country, succumbed after a few generations to the hard fate which befell all the reigning families of Sweden. Of seven kings belonging to this renowned race, five were dethroned and died in prison or in exile. The most distinguished, successful, and just among the race, was Magnus Ladulas (1275–1290), who has been already mentioned. He was buried in the resting-place which he had designed for himself in the Franciscan Monastery at Stockholm, having expressed the wish "that his memory might not die away with the sound of the bells over his grave."

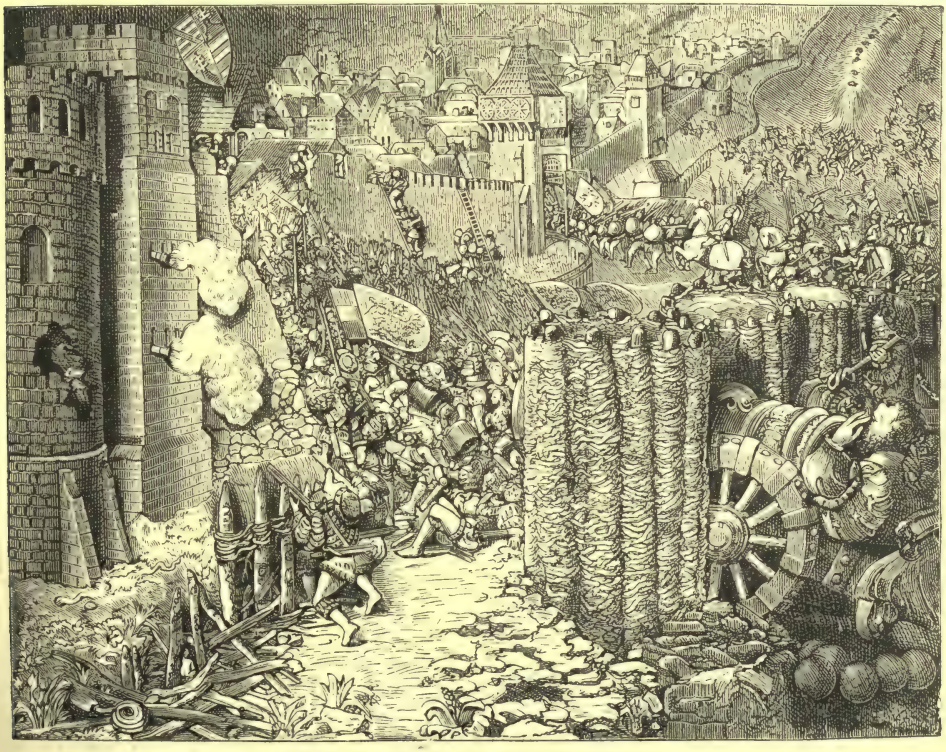
After the last Folkungs, Magnus II. (1319–1363), who ruled Norway also, and his son Hakon, had been deposed, the Swedish crown fell to Duke Albrecht, of Mecklenburg (1363–1389), the nephew of Magnus. But the nobles who conferred it upon him, divested it of all power, and after a few years made it over to Margaret (1412), the queen of Denmark, and a war ensued that lasted for eight years, and ended in the triumph of Margaret, who took Albert prisoner, and united the three kingdoms by the Union of Calmar; each to keep its own form of government.

Norway.—At the beginning of the next century, the Duke of Schleswig was slain in battle. Margaret then made an attempt, which was continued after her death by her foster-son, Eric of Pomerania, to obtain by force and treachery repossession of the dukedom. But the design was frustrated. Adolphus VIII., son of the slain duke, Gerhard, retained the dukedom of Schleswig as the hereditary feudal possession of his house; and after his death his kinsman Christian of Oldenburg, who also held the Danish crown, was recognised by the assembled Estates as Duke of Schleswig and Count of Holstein. This choice was a source of much future trouble.

Scandinavia after the Union of Calmar.

THE Union of Calmar was disastrous for all three kingdoms, both on account of national hatred and jealousy, as well as the feebleness of most of the rulers; consequently it did not take deep root. In Denmark the kings were so restricted by the landed aristocracy that they appeared rather as the principals of the Senate than the rulers of a free people; Norway lost its independence, and Sweden only escaped sharing the same fate by its obstinate and vigorous resistance, and the weakness of the Danish kings. The foreign governors who ruled in Sweden were expelled, and a stipulation was made that only natives should be invested with the dignity of an administrator of the kingdom; when, however, one of these rulers attempted to seize the

royal crown, like Karl Knutson, about the middle of the 15th century, all the companions of his own rank united against him. This peculiar state of things was recognised by the brave, wise, and popular governor, Sten Sture (1471–1504), who allowed the shadow of a Danish sovereignty to continue under Christian I. (1443–81), with whom the house of Oldenburg began to reign in Denmark, under Christian's John; but ruled vigorously and wisely in Sweden as an independent administrator of the kingdom. He kept the nobility in obedience and subjection; he prevented insurrections by craftily keeping up the jealousy between the spiritual and temporal nobles, and created a powerful enemy for both in the deputies of the towns and the free peasantry. He also raised the mental culture of the country by founding the university of Upsala, invited scholars into his dominions, and promoted the establishment of printing houses. But when his second successor, Sten Sture the younger, quarrelled with the Archbishop of Upsala, the enterprising Christian II. succeeded with the help of the latter in re-establishing the supremacy of Denmark over Sweden (1520). Sten Sture was defeated in battle and fatally wounded, and Christian caused ninety-four of the most influential and powerful nobles in Stockholm to be beheaded. The deed is known as the Massacre of Stockholm. This severity, however, caused the bond between Denmark and Sweden to be irrevocably severed a few years later.



SIEGE OF A TOWN IN THE 15TH CENTURY.



HUNGARIANS EMIGRATING TO THEIR NEW HOMES.

Hungary Under the Royal House of Arpad (until 1301).

SOON after the victory of Otto the Great on the Lechfield had put an end to the incursions of the Hungarians, Geisa (972–997) became converted to Christianity, and caused the teachings of the Gospel to be imparted to his people also by means of German missionaries. But his heart remained hard and cruel; he slew with his own hand whoever excited his anger; and while he raged with wild violence against idolaters, he himself sacrificed to false gods. The work of conversion was however completed, with the help of the missionaries Radla and Astrick, by his son Stephen I., the Saint (997–1038), who received from Pope Silvester II. the sacred diadem as "first Christian king," with which all his successors were afterwards crowned. He endeavoured at the same time to elevate the new royal power by dividing the whole country into counties; he allotted the control of the army and the administration of justice to governors appointed by himself, and gradually deprived the chieftains of wild hordes of their great power. By promoting agriculture as well as by the introduction of suitable laws, he earned for himself the titles of Founder of the Hierarchy, Ruler of the State, and Lawgiver of the People. Stephen's preference for Germans and Italians provoked great resistance towards his Church and State reforms on the part of the Magyars, who were jealous of their old customs, till at last, when his successor pursued a similar course, a destructive war of succession commenced, which resulted in the Hungarian crown becoming a fief of the German emperor, Henry III. Peace

was not restored till the time of Ladislaus (1077–1095), when the nation not only obtained its old independence, but also conquered Croatia and Dalmatia. The kingdom was soon plunged into fresh disturbance.

Under Geisa II. (1141–1161), bands of Flemish and South German settlers established themselves in the district now called Transylvania, where, under the name of Saxons, they have retained their national customs, language, and institutions until the present day, and by their industry and perseverance have transformed the country from a desert to a prosperous district. About 1160 a noble citizen from Nuremberg founded Hermannstadt; the other larger towns, such as Klausenburg and Cronstadt, arose soon afterwards. In the 13th century the Hungarian magnates obtained a letter of freedom, which, like the Magna Charta in England, became the foundation of Hungary's national liberties.

Hungary as an Elective Kingdom.

When the Arpad dynasty became extinct, on the death of Andreas III., the throne was in a tottering condition for a few years, until Charles Robert (1308–1342), of the reigning house of Anjou, strengthened it, and then bequeathed it to his son, Louis the Great (1342–1382). Under this ruler Hungary attained to the summit of outward power and inward culture. Louis obtained the crown of Poland, extended the boundary of Hungary to the lower Danube, including Walachia, Bulgaria, etc., and extorted a yearly tribute from the Venetians. In his time the hills around Tokay were planted with vines, and cultivation and progress were everywhere evident. After his death, Hungary became once more a prey to quarrels and combats of parties for the throne, until the German emperor Sigismund obtained the crown, and on his death bequeathed it to his daughter Elizabeth (1437), who was married first to Albrecht, of Austria, and then to Wladislav, of Poland.

After Wladislav had fallen in the battle of Varna against the Osmanli Turks, the government was carried on by the heroic Hunyad, who acted as regent of Hungary during the minority of Albrecht's son, Ladislaus. After the death of Ladislaus, Hunyad's son, Matthias Corvinus, ascended the throne (1458–1490), and proved himself a worthy successor of St. Stephen and Louis the Great. He gained possession of Bosnia, besides making other extensive conquests, founded new universities in Open (Buda) and Presburg, and encouraged art, industry, and agriculture. Under his successors, Ladislav, of Bohemia, and his son, Louis II., these advantages were once more lost, and the Turks reconquered Bosnia and stormed Belgrade. The royal power was enfeebled. and the country was reduced through .the depredations of the Turks, to a state of misery and desolation. The Turks, pacified for a time by a shameful capitulation, reappeared in 1526, and King Louis was defeated and slain in the terrible battle of Mohacz in that year. After Louis' death there arose an unfortunate contest for the throne between John Zapolya, a wealthy nobleman, and Ferdinand of Austria, who, as the husband of Louis' sister Anna, had a claim to the Hungarian crown. The country was at last divided into Transylvania and East Hungary, which stood under Turkish supremacy, and West Hungary, which Ferdinand united with his other dominions in consideration of the payment of a yearly tribute, but which he was obliged during his whole reign to defend by force of arms.

POLAND UNDER THE PIASTS TILL 1386.

THE extensive plains on the Vistula and the countries on the Oder and the Warthe were inhabited by Sclavonian races. Since the conversion of the Duke Miesko (Miecislav) to Christianity (966) by German missionaries, Poland was regarded as a fief of the empire, but at last obtained its freedom during the reign of Frederick II. Many divisions weakened and disturbed the Polish kingdom, till at last in the 12th century the Silesian principalities on the Oder severed themselves from the community and became Germanized. The power and influence of the princes was weakened by the aristocracy and by the immunities of the Church, and the privileges and advantages of German settlers in the Polish towns also diminished the royal supremacy. Poland first gained importance in the 14th century, when Wladislav Loktick (1305–33), the fourth duke of that name, permanently united the princedoms on the Warthe as Great Poland with the countries on the Vistula (Little Poland), caused himself to be crowned at Cracow as King Wladislav I., and bequeathed his royal dignity to his successors. His son Kasimir the Great (1333–70), who replaced the lost territory in the north by the conquest of Galicia and Red Russia, won for himself great renown as a legislator. He endeavoured to weaken the power of the nobility by favouring the towns, and through his means the university of Cracow was established. But the influence of cities and citizens could not perhaps increase among so warlike and uncultured a people as the Poles. Kasimir died from the effects of a fall while hunting, 1370, and was buried in the cathedral of Cracow. The whole country mourned for him. He was the last Polish king of the house of the Piasts, with which the destinies of the nation had been so closely allied for many centuries. After Kasimir's death the Poles presented the crown to his nephew Louis the Great of Hungary (1370–82), who gained the favour of the nobility by granting them many privileges, and freedom from taxation. Heavy days of sorrow now came upon the country, caused by the fierce disputes of the Poles with the Magyars, the latter being greatly favoured by the regent's mother Elizabeth, in consequence of which more than a hundred Hungarian courtiers and office-holders were put to death, and the queen angrily quitted the kingdom and returned to her native Hungary. Louis left no son to succeed him, therefore Poland was again separated from Hungary, and made over to his second daughter Hedwig and her husband, Duke Jagellon, of Lithuania. After Hedwig's death Jagellon married her niece Anna.

POLAND UNDER THE JAGELLONS FAMILY (1386–1572).



FROM that time forward Poland was an elective kingdom. Jagellon, or Wladislav II., as he was called, on receiving baptism together with the crown, annexed Lithuania to the kingdom of Poland after having introduced Christianity into the country and overthrown the idolaters. Poles and Lithuanians were incorporated more and more into one nation. Nevertheless Lithuania maintained its national characteristics even after its union with Poland, especially so long as the warlike and energetic Grand Duke Witold, who died in 1430, and was a near relative of Jagellon's, possessed the governorship of his native land. After thoroughly weakening the Teutonic order of Knights, and depriving it of its indepen-

dence, Jagellon paved the way for the election of his son Wladislav III. (1434-44), by granting privileges to the nobility; and when, after a short, independent reign, Wladislav fell in the battle of Varna against the Turks, and was succeeded by his uncle Kasimir (1447-92), the nobility gained such power, that they were henceforward regarded as the only true national representatives.

During the short reigns of Kasimir's three sons, John Albert, Alexander, and Sigismund, the elective right of the nation was more freely practised than before, and the republic of nobles was still more clearly defined, and increased its influence. It is true King Sigismund (1506-48), during the time of the Reformation, strengthened the supremacy of Poland over the newly-established dukedom that had been founded by the grand master of the Teutonic order of Prussia, and united Livonia and Courland to the Polish kingdom; but the overwhelming and encroaching power of the Russians in the east and north, and the depredations of the Osmanli on the south, inflicted terrible injury on the country, especially as the selfishness of the nobility threw on the king all the expense of defending the kingdom against invaders.

The Russian Empire.



WHEN the great-grandson of the Varangian chief Rurik, Wladimir the Great, who dwelt in his capital at Kiev, introduced the Greek Christian Church into his kingdom (1000), and overthrew the sacrificial altars of the idols, his country extended from the Dnieper to Lake Ladoga and to the banks of the Dwina. But under his successors of the reigning family of "Ruriks" the nation was enfeebled by internal wars and disputes, so that the warlike Lithuanians, Poles, etc., were enabled to seize large territories in the west, and the Mongols, also called Tartars, from the chief troops, penetrated as far as the Dnieper, after the bloody battle on the Kalka in 1224. Fifteen years later the Tartars resumed their expeditions of conquest. They stormed Kiev, the brilliant seat of government, murdered the inhabitants, and reduced the rich commercial city with all its monuments to ashes; and after subjugating all the country from the Dnieper to the Vistula, they made the whole kingdom tributary. The grand khan of the golden horde of Kaptchak, whose residence was eastward of the Volga, exacted tribute during two centuries from the Russian rulers. It was not till the time of the Grand Duke Iwan Wasiljewitsch the Great (1462-1505) of Moscow that the kingdom was liberated from this yoke, and by successful wars was extended on all sides. The wealthy trading town of Novgorod, which belonged to the Hanseatic League, and had succeeded in withdrawing itself from Russian supremacy and establishing a republican commonwealth, was subjugated in 1478, and deprived of its rights. The Tartar principality of Kasan was compelled to pay tribute to the grand dukes of Moscow, and even Lithuania was made to feel that a new spirit had come upon Russia. Iwan's marriage with a niece of the last Christian emperor of



ENTRANCE OF IWAN INTO KASAN.

Constantinople promoted the introduction of Byzantine culture into the Muscovite kingdom. That ruler began to direct his attention to the Eastern Roman empire, whose two-headed eagle he adopted on the Russian arms, and thus imposed on his successors the duty of regarding the Byzantine state as the legitimate inheritance of the Muscovite rulers, and of acting accordingly. Iwan was not only a mighty conqueror, but also a lawgiver and ruler. He endeavoured to plant the germs of civilization among his barbarous people. Iwan's grandson, Iwan Wasiljewitsch II. (1533–84), called the Terrible, who first assumed the title of a Czar, or "ruler of all the Russias," followed in the blood-stained footsteps of his ancestor, and sought by the same means to civilize and enlarge Russia. He conquered Kasan and Astrachan, extended his empire to the Caucasus, and made preparations for the subjugation of Siberia. His ferocity made him the scourge of the nation he governed. In a campaign against Novgorod, that had not forgotten its ancient freedom, he is said to have slaughtered 60,000 persons. With his own hand he slew his eldest son. By instituting the Strelzi or Strelitz guard he laid the foundation of a standing army. He was succeeded by his son Fedor, with whom in 1598 the Rurik line became extinct, after the empire had grown to five times its original extent under the authority of those barbarous chiefs.

Siberia. When the Cossack Jermak conquered Siberia, it was under the rule of the Tartars or Mongols. After Jermak's death in 1584, the Cossacks

from the Don wandered in troops into Siberia, but still under Russian supremacy and guidance; and in the course of two centuries the whole country was subjugated to Russian rule. As Siberia comprises more than a third of the whole of Asia, it has naturally throughout its vast extent a great variety of climate and vegetation. The northern coast countries, where the snow begins to melt in June, consist of morasses and marshy districts; further south there begin to be signs of vegetation, while the whole southern portion of north Siberia is covered with boundless forests. The soil of central Siberia is of marvellous fertility; with the poorest cultivation it yields rich harvests of corn of all kinds, garden fruits, flax, hemp, and even melons. The most southerly portion of Siberia, where the summers are very hot and the winters stormy, is a great desert, without towns, villages, or roads. There are no rivers whatever, but only salt water lakes.

The Kingdom of the Osmanli Turks.



TOWARDS the end of the thirteenth century the Osmanli quitted their former dwelling-places in the eastern territory of the Caspian Sea to escape the sword of the Mongols. They conquered for themselves the remains of the Seljukian kingdom in Asia Minor. Accompanied by warlike hordes, who were incited by the Mohammedan dervishes to make war against the Christians, and spurred on by the prospect of booty, Osman penetrated in 1299 to Bithynia, made Bursa his seat of government, and maintained his conquests against the enervated Greeks, and their allies the Catalonians. Soon Nicomedia, Nicæa, and the classic territory of Ilium obeyed the Sultan of Bursa, while the Byzantine court became more and more enfeebled by party quarrels and intrigues. After Murad I. (1361–89), the special founder of the indomitable power of the Janissaries, had subjugated the whole of Asia Minor, he advanced into Europe, and in the course of a few campaigns conquered all the country from the Hellespont to the Balkan range. Adrianople was made his capital, and the warlike Servians and Bulgarians alone succeeded in resisting him for a time. But after the bloody battle of Kossova in 1389, in which Murad himself met his death, they also bent before the violence of the Janissaries. Murad's son Bajazet (1389), who won for himself the honourable surname of the Lightning, gained possession of Macedonia and Thessaly, penetrated into Greece, and stormed Argos. At last western Christendom began to take up arms against the terrible enemy. The emperor Sigismund and John of Burgundy, with many German and Bohemian nobles, advanced, with over a hundred thousand men, to the Lower Danube. But in spite of their heroism and bravery, the bloody battle of Nicopolis in 1396 resulted in favour of the infidels against the Christians, and Bosnia was the fruit of the victory. Sigismund with difficulty escaped by sea with a few followers. The French nobles and knights had to pay a heavy ransom for their liberty, and Bajazet slaughtered ten thousand prisoners of low rank to avenge those who had fallen on his side. He then marched against Constantinople, and laid siege to the city.



KUBLAI KHAN IN HIS ELEPHANT CAR. (*From the "Livre des Merveilles."*)

TIMUR.

A new enemy now appeared, more formidable and fierce than Bajazet himself, in the person of the warlike Mongol ruler, Timur the Lame (Tamerlan, Timurlank), a descendant of Dschengis-Chan, whose degenerate kingdom he resolved to set up again. Persia was soon deluged with blood. In India all the prisoners of war were cut down under the walls of Delhi, that "the great Mogul" of Timur's family might with security hold the government of Hindostan. After Timur had destroyed Bagdad for the second time, had burnt Damascus, and conquered Syria from the Mameluks, he spread terror and destruction through Asia Minor and the countries on the Volga. At last Bajazet desisted from the siege of Constantinople, and advanced to meet the mighty conqueror. Near Angora, in Galatia, a fierce battle was fought (1402), which, in spite of the bravery and martial skill of the Turks, was decided in favour of the warlike shepherd nation. Bajazet was taken prisoner, and died of grief in the following year. Timur soon followed him to the grave, and his empire fell to pieces as quickly as it had arisen, while the power of the Osmanli, shattered for a time, once more attained to its former splendour, because neither the weak Byzantine empire nor the divided kingdoms of the West seized the opportunity to combat it. The grandson of Bajazet, Murad II. (1421–51), succeeded in re-asserting his supremacy over the rebels of Asia Minor, and then commenced anew the conquests on the Danube and the Hæmus. Thereupon John VII., Palæologos, endeavoured, like his two predecessors, John VI. and Manuel, to procure the help of western Christendom by a union of the Eastern with the Roman Church. The only result, however, of these negociations, and the many theological disputes to which they gave rise, was an attempt on the part of the Pope to organize a crusade against the Turks. Wladislav, king of Hungary and Poland, and the brave Hunyad,

whose warlike skill and prowess had already disconcerted the Turks on frequent occasions, crossed the Danube and advanced to the coast of the Black Sea. There Murad hastened to meet them, and in the bloody battle of Varna (1444) gained an overwhelming victory over the Christian army. The young king was slain, and the fruits of all his victories were lost.

Conquest of Constantinople.



WHEN Murad's ambitious and bloodthirsty son, Mohammed II., became sultan of the Osmanli, the last hour of the eastern Roman empire was approaching. Determined to make Constantinople his capital, Mohammed declared war against the tributary Byzantine emperor, and commenced to besiege the town, which for the space of fifty days defied all attacks and assaults. But at last the ramparts were carried by storm, and then the heroic emperor Constantine died bravely fighting on the walls of his capital, in the thickest of the fray (1453). Beautiful Constantinople, the ancient abode of Byzantine splendour, now became the residence of the sultans. The church of St. Sophia was transformed into a mosque, the Christian inhabitants were placed under the yoke of slavery, and on the ruins of Christian culture was planted the crescent of Turkish Islam. The fall of Constantinople was quickly followed by the conquest of the Trapezuntian kingdom, the subjugation of the principal islands in the Ægean Sea, with Greece and the Morea. In vain did Popes Nicholas V. and Pius II. endeavour to awaken the slumbering religious zeal of the nations for a crusade against the Turks, the determined foes of Christianity; only a few irregular and undisciplined troops at last mustered under the guidance of the Franciscan monk Capistrano, to render aid to the heroic Hunyad, who in Belgrade was defending himself desperately against the attacks of the Turks. The victory before this town, when the Turks, after many fruitless assaults, were compelled to a disastrous retreat, pursued by the Hungarians and the army of the Cross, was the last glorious exploit of the Christians. All further attempts to rouse the nations to a renewed attack on the infidels were futile. Servia and Wallachia were incorporated with the Osmanli empire, and Moldavia became tributary; only in the mountainous districts of Albania, and especially in Epirus, its southern point, the warlike hero Alexander Castriola, called Skanderbeg, maintained until his death in 1467 an independent rule, and Hungary's freedom was defended by the brave arms of the followers of Hunyad. In the east also the mighty conqueror established the supremacy of the Osmanli. On the remains of the Turkoman sovereignty, Shah Ismail, ruler of Tebris in Aserberdjan, an enthusiastic disciple of Ali and the Shiite form of belief, after the defeat of Usunhasan, the Turcoman sultan, in the battle of Terdshan in 1478, founded the new Persian kingdom of the Staffi or Sofi. Mohammed had already set foot in distracted Italy and turned his glance towards Rome, thinking by the capture of that city to extirpate Christianity from the whole earth, when death put an end to his designs (1481). At once a conqueror, warrior and a legislator, he founded the system of government afterwards developed by

Solyman. The first half of the 16th century was the most brilliant period of the victories of the Osmanli. After a temporary cessation of expeditions of conquest during the reign of Mohammed's successor, Bajazet II. (1481–1512), a fresh period of victory and glory came to the Osmanli kingdom under the sway of Selim I. (1512–20), who made the Tigris the eastern boundary of his empire in the direction of Persia, conquered the Mameluks in two bloody battles, and annexed Mesopotamia, Syria, and Egypt to his dominions. His son Solyman, or Suleiman the Magnificent (1520–66), continued the conquests of his father. After an arduous siege he at last gained possession of the island of Rhodes, which was bravely defended by 6,000 knights of St. John under their grand master Villiers de l'Isle Adam against 150,000 Turks, and then proceeded to the conquest of Belgrade and Peterwardein; and after the bloody battle of Mohacz in 1526 (in which king Louis II. of Hungary and Bohemia lost his life), compelled half of Hungary with the city of Ofen to acknowledge his supremacy. Ferdinand of Austria was recognised as Louis' successor, but Solyman decided in favour of his rival Zapolya of Transylvania, and marched with an army to the walls of Vienna, but after a fruitless siege was compelled to retire. The heroic defence of Vienna saved Germany. But Solyman, who returned devastating and plundering, to his empire, extended his dominions in Asia; Bagdad, Basra, Mosul, and Jemen were conquered, and in north Africa the Porte obtained the protectorate over the pirate states of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripolis, which the bold Horush and Hayraddin Barbarossa had torn from their Arab possessors. In conjunction with Francis I. of France, Solyman repeatedly threatened southern Italy, but it succeeded in resisting his power, as did also the island of Malta, which he strove hard to conquer. He was proceeding to fresh conquests in Hungary, at an advanced age, when he died in 1566 before the walls of Sigeth, in defending which city the brave Count Zriny met a hero's death.



MOHAMMED II.

With Solyman the power of the Osmanli came to an end. His feeble successors forgot in the enervating sensual pleasures of the seraglio the warlike virtues of their forefathers, though their power was based on the sword; and in place of the chivalrous spirit which had been fostered by the state in bygone times, an arrogant temper and mischievous spirit of rebellion began to prevail. Judges and governors allowed themselves to be bribed and cor-

rupted, oppression and extortion depopulated the provinces, oriental effeminacy and enervating sensual enjoyment sapped the strength of the people. The countries lying under Byzantine rule were devastated and impoverished, the population of conquered districts was often completely exterminated in times of war, and agriculture and every kind of industry suffered severely. No prosperous harbours now adorned the shores of the Black Sea; that had now become the "inhospitable," and on which from time to time wild nomad tribes wandered with their herds. Indolence of temperament checked any possibility of development among the Turks, and the religion of the country, which fostered a hatred of Christianity, impeded the spread and advance of Western civilization. Under these conditions, it would have been easy for the Christian states to dispossess the Turks of a portion of their conquests, had not mutual envy and jealousy prevented any concerted enterprise. Consequently the brilliant victory which Don Juan of Austria, the natural son of Charles V., gained over the Turks in the sea-fight of Lepanto (1571), effected no result beyond the destruction of the Turkish fleet.

Termination of the Period of the Middle Ages.



THE reign of the Emperor Maximilian of Germany may be regarded as the transition period of the Middle Ages to modern times. For while there is a character of mediævalism in his brave deeds of war and tournament, his fondness for the ancient poetry of love and chivalry, and his martial exploits in the Netherlands, Hungary, and Italy, we recognise in the political alliances in Italy, the diplomatic intrigues, and the dissensions and reconciliations of courts, the existence of a period in which dynastic and political interests form the essence of state life, when alliances and counter-alliances begin to constitute a European policy, and in which the destinies of one state re-act upon all the others. Wars, alliances, and treaties of peace promote the intercourse of nations; the severance and isolation of governments that prevailed in the Middle Ages gradually gives place to a developed state system. And as states and nations enter into a closer connection and relationship with each other, so also do the different classes attain to a closer equality.

In proportion as the institution of knighthood deteriorates and becomes unworthy of its ancient renown, and the service of love and chivalry de-

generates into voluptuousness and sensuality, does the citizen class raise itself, and compensate for the lack of privileges of birth, by culture, prosperity, and vigour. A powerful citizen army, which marches into the field on foot, and in the great battles of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries encounters with heroism the assaults of the armed ranks of the mounted nobility, ousts the knights from the supremacy in arms and martial prowess which they have hitherto held; the introduction of fire-arms, and the increasing habit of fighting battles with mercenary troops, completely deprives the nobility of their superiority, and reduces them in battle to the rank of the aspiring citizen-class.

The two great lights of the Middle Ages, the Empire and the Papacy, had lost their splendour, the former through the increasing power of the princes of the land, the latter through the evil use which the heads of the Church made of their position during their residence at Avignon, and through the degeneracy of the clergy, who gave themselves up to every vice and pleasure, and instead of a divine simplicity encouraged a temper of servility. The great church councils and assemblies of the fifteenth century exposed the degeneracy of ecclesiastical government and the decay of the Papacy. The proud edifice of the feudal monarchy and papal supremacy had become utterly rotten; and therefore could not withstand the attacks which were made against it simultaneously on both sides. A deadly stagnation had fallen upon State and Church; and if this stagnation was not to produce universal corruption, a new and mighty struggle must be begun that should diffuse fresh strength and vitality among the nations of the world.



TIMUR.



TRIUMPHAL ENTRY OF MAXIMILIAN I. AND MARY OF BURGUNDY.

THE PRECURSORS OF THE NEW TIMES.

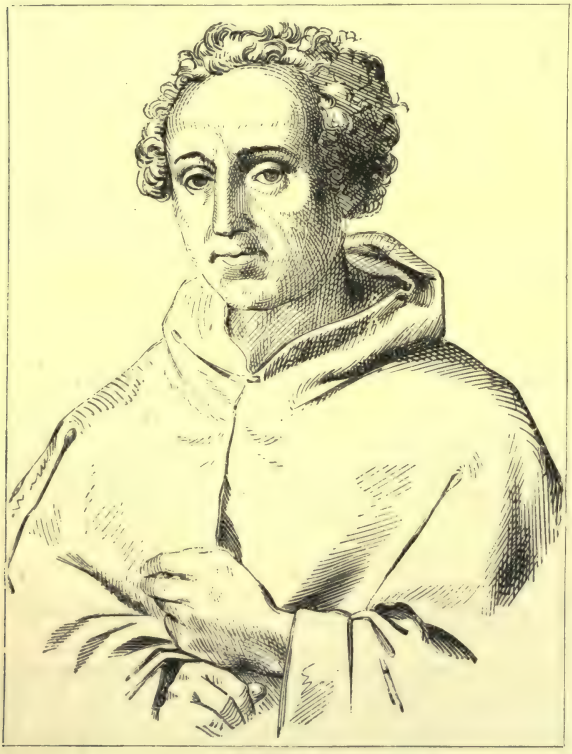
DISCOVERY OF AMERICA BY CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.—FIRST VOYAGE OF THE ADMIRAL, 1792.—FURTHER VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS.—CONQUESTS AND DISCOVERIES IN THE NEW WORLD.—INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES AND PROGRESS.

THE MARINER'S COMPASS.—GUNPOWDER.—THE ART OF PRINTING.

IN the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries several important discoveries were made which had the greatest influence on the development of the world of the Middle Ages. The curious property possessed by the magnet of pointing to the north was known in early times to different nations, but was first made use of in navigation by Flavio Giojá at the beginning of the fourteenth century, with incalculable results. Whether gunpowder was known to the Chinese, Indians, and Arabs, or was first invented by the German monk Berthold Schwarz of Freiburg, is a debated point, but it is an ascertained fact that it came into use towards the middle of the fourteenth century, and that it had as important results with regard to warfare as the compass in connection with navigation. The invention of the art of printing

belongs to the German citizen John Guttenberg, who was born at Mayence, but dwelt for a long time as Strasburg. In conjunction with Fust, or Faust, a goldsmith of Mayence, who supplied the necessary money for the undertaking, and assisted by Peter Schöffer, a transcriber of books, Guttenberg soon brought the new invention to such perfection that already, in 1456, a Latin Bible could be printed with great accuracy. But the inventor was not fated to enjoy the reward of his efforts. Faust quarrelled with him, set up a legal claim for the repayment of his advances of money, and for the type and instruments he had provided, and then, having entered into partnership with Schöffer, he continued the work of printing on a larger scale. With the assistance of a Mayence councillor, Guttenberg was once more placed in a position to set up a printing press, which, with the other, continued in operation for some time. His bitter experiences had, however, cut him to the heart. He subsequently entered the service of the Archbishop Adolf, and died on the 24th February, 1467.

Discovery of America by Christopher Columbus.



COLUMBUS.

THE zeal for discovery which the Portuguese enterprises had awakened, aroused a desire in the Genoese navigator Christopher Columbus, one of the bravest and noblest men mentioned in history, to discover, by a voyage to the West, a new way to the East Indies. Mysterious legends from the past of a vanished island Atlantis, and fictitious accounts of unknown wonder-lands had filled his imagination, and the proud thought of opening to the world these new countries gained strength with time, and the opposition he encountered only tended to increase his resolution. He imparted his project to King John II. of Portugal, but could obtain no support from him. His plan was declared to be a fanciful delusion, but an attempt was nevertheless made behind his back, by sending out a secret expedition, to discover if there were any truth in his assertions. Annoyed at this dishonourable proceeding, Columbus quitted Lisbon and went to Spain, while his brother Bartholomæus set out for England, to endeavour to obtain the patronage and assistance of King Henry VII. In Spain also Columbus for a long time failed in getting a hearing; at last, however, Isabella of Castile, in the joy of her heart at

the fortunate conquest of Granada, allowed three ships to be fitted out and entrusted to the bold navigator. The dignity of commander-in-chief and vice-regent of all the discovered countries and islands, with the tenth part of the hoped-for revenues from the new lands, and elevation to the rank of the nobles, for himself and his descendants, was promised him as the price of his success. On the 3rd August, 1492, the small squadron with ninety sailors, among them three brothers belonging to the experienced family of navigators named Pinzon, quitted the Andalusian harbour of Palos, and sailed away past the Canary Islands to the westward. Traditional accounts have declared that the sailors entered into a conspiracy to compel the admiral to return, and that his life was threatened, but these stories are probably only the misrepresentations which frequently occur in connection with world-famed enterprises. As a promise of an annuity of thirty gold pieces was made to whoever should first catch sight of land, many signals were given which turned out to be false, till Columbus at last declared that whoever excited expectations by false alarms, should forfeit his claim to the reward. On the first days of October there were increasing signs that land was near. Flights of small coloured birds swarmed round the admiral's vessel, and then flew off towards the south-west; tunny-fishes disported themselves in the quiet waters, and fresh, green herbs were seen that had been carried off by the waves from the shore. The vessel turned its course a little towards the south; the air was as soft and balmy as the spring breezes in Seville. On the 11th of October the commander believed he saw a distant light moving in the clear autumn evening. After the customary evening song he therefore ordered his men to keep a good watch, and promised to the first one who should spy land a silk vest, in addition to the royal gift. At two o'clock in the morning, on Friday, the 12th of October, a sailor descried the glimmering streak of a projecting shore. With the joyful cry of "Land! Land!" he seized the nearest gun to give the signal. But the reward was subsequently conferred on the admiral, because he had seen the light earlier. As soon as day dawned Columbus landed, wearing a scarlet admiral's dress, and bearing the royal banner of Castile, on Watling's Island, which the inhabitants called Guanahani, but which received from the discoverer the name of San Salvador. They found a beautiful fertile forest country inhabited by naked savages of a copper brown colour, who unsuspiciously looked on at the solemn occupation of their land in the name of the Spanish sovereigns, and who bartered their best possessions for spangles, glass beads, shells, and playthings. But the anticipated treasures in gold, precious stones, and pearls, were not found in the hoped-for abundance either here or in the two larger islands of Cuba and Hayti (Hispaniola, St. Domingo), which were discovered soon afterwards.

After Columbus had built the fortress of Navidad on the "Spanish island," and had founded a colony, he set out for Castile, and, after a dangerous voyage, carried to Europe the astounding intelligence of a new world, to which was given the name of the West Indies. A papal deed of gift conferred on the Spaniards all the recently discovered countries within 370 miles to the west of the Azores. The proud declaration of the Church that the heathen and their inheritance, and the uttermost parts of the earth, should fall into its possession, appeared likely to be fulfilled through the important discovery.

The Further Voyages of Columbus.

IN the two following expeditions which Columbus undertook to the New World in 1493 and 1498, he discovered several other islands, Jamaica, and the small Antilles, with the vigorous race of kidnapping savages called Caraibs (Cannibals), and at last found the southern continent not far from the mouth of the Orinoco. Nevertheless the New World did not receive its name from the discoverer, but from its first historian, the Florentine Amerigo Vespucci of Seville, who in the capacity of a pilot sailed in 1499 with Alonzo de Hojeda, a former companion of the great admiral. The expedition of Hojeda followed in the track of Columbus, and navigated the coasts of Guiana and the mouths of the Amazon river; and Amerigo Vespucci wrote a description of the voyage. Columbus shared the fate of many great and ingenious men, in that he was not permitted to enjoy the fruits of his labours. The garrison which was left behind at Hispaniola became disorganized through the quarrels of the colonists among themselves, and by disputes with the oppressed and ill-treated natives, who had received the strangers hospitably, and had generously shared with them the fruits and products of their fertile country. The licentiousness and immoral life of the new-comers significantly weakened the respect with which the admiral and his company had inspired the natives by his dignified and judicious demeanour, and brought about their overthrow. Columbus restored a good understanding with the natives, founded the colonial settlements of Isabella and San Domingo, and made vigorous efforts, both by warlike expeditions and peaceful negotiations and treaties, to strengthen the Spanish supremacy. The Cacique Caonabo, the brave chief of the most warlike and hostile tribe in the island, was carried off from his people by the bold Hojeda, and handed over to the admiral, who sent him as a prisoner to Spain. The "proud lord of the golden house," as the once powerful ruler of the Cibao country was called, died on the voyage of a broken heart, from grief at his unfortunate fate. Soon however mutinies and conspiracies broke out once more among the garrison at Hispaniola, and impeded the progress of the work of discovery. Columbus, in his efforts to restore peace, punished the rebels or sent them to Europe, where, out of anger and malice, they proceeded to calumniate him at the Spanish court, and to represent his administration in the blackest light. King Ferdinand of Aragon, who was not so friendly to the great discoverer as his generous and enlightened consort Queen Isabella, at once despatched a narrow-minded, inefficient officer, named Francisco de Bobadilla, to Columbus's government, to investigate the state of affairs. This officer, misinterpreting or exceeding the limits of his powers, commenced his work by deposing Columbus from the governorship and causing him to be imprisoned and bound with chains; thereupon the great discoverer was sent back a disgraced man to Spain. Here, it is true, he was restored to honour, for the outcry in Europe at the insult and cruelty was great; but the court of Castile knew how to evade and put aside the stipulated agreement, and his office was not given back to the admiral.

While Columbus was still in Spain, the new commander Ovando sailed with a large fleet of colonists to the island-world of the West Indies, to complete his work, but the envy and jealousy of the Spaniards still pursued

the great Genoese and his brother. As he was not permitted to go to Hispaniola, he undertook, in company with his energetic brother Bartholomew, a fourth voyage of discovery (1502–1504), in the hope of finding a western passage in Central America. This enterprise resulted, however, in an unfortunate failure, partly through many accidents by land and sea, and also through the hostilities and treachery of a mutinous band among his sailors at the



COLUMBUS IN CHAINS.

island of Jamaica, where he was compelled to land. Ill and exhausted, he returned to Spain. Shortly before his arrival home his patroness Isabella had died; and the last two years of his life were joyless and desolate. Robbed of his office and honours, he died, deeply wounded at the ingratitude of Ferdinand, at Valladolid (1506), whence his corpse was taken subsequently to St. Domingo, and thence to Cuba (1796). The chains in which he had been brought fettered to Spain, were placed in his grave, according to his wish, by his son Diego.

Posterity alone recognised the sterling greatness of this noble man, who stood forth so prominently among his contemporaries, distinguished alike for his services, and also for his royal nature. In spite of the bitterest experiences, Columbus never lost his generous temper, nor his belief in fidelity and human virtue, and in the midst of his practical life he still preserved a perceptible taste for the inoffensive life of simple men in childlike innocence, and for the mighty ruling of a wondrous nature.

Further Discoveries and Conquests in the New World.

Balboa, Magellan.—Even before Columbus had discovered mainland or the southern continent of America, another enterprising Italian, John Cabot of Venice, whose lively imagination had been excited by the laurels won by his Genoese compatriot, had sailed northwards with his three sons in English ships from Bristol, and had discovered the distant country of Labrador (1497) with its polar bears, rocks, and wild inhabitants ; yet the northern coast-land, which was discovered in its full extent from Florida to the country of the Esquimaux by his enterprising son Sebastian Cabot and the Portuguese Cortereal (1501), was not destined at that time to take its place in history ; its influence on the life of Europe lay concealed in the future. Amid incredible difficulties, which the nature of the country, the wild animals, and the hostile hordes of natives led by warlike chiefs, presented to the valiant adventurers, the brave, simple-minded Balboa crossed the mountainous isthmus of Panama, and discovered the great Pacific Ocean or South Sea (1515). With sword in hand, and waving a banner bearing the figure of the Holy Virgin, he advanced knee-deep into the waves, proclaiming loudly that he took possession of these seas, lands, islands, and shores in the name of the monarchs of Castile and Aragon. His death at the hands of the executioner, to which the envy of his incapable, hypocritical successor Pedrarias Davila condemned him, on an accusation of treason (1517), put an end to his extensive plans of conquest. Some years later the Portuguese Magellan, who had entered the Spanish service, succeeded in reaching the Pacific Ocean through the straits called after his name, and after the most terrible sufferings from hunger, arrived at the East India islands (the Ladrones and Philippines—1519–21), and thus paved the way for the first voyage round the world. The terrible death of his predecessor Diaz de Solis, who had been slain and devoured by the savages when landing on the banks of the broad La Plata river, had not availed to deter him from his enterprises. He, however, also died a violent death at the hands of the wild inhabitants of the Philippines (1521), and was compelled to leave to others the completion of his undertaking. The South Sea, which Magellan had believed to be a vast solitude, was found by these discoveries to be covered with islands, which however, from the want of exact astronomical knowledge, occupied ambiguous positions in the maps of the period.



THE BAPTISM OF ST. STEPHEN OF HUNGARY.

CORTEZ IN MEXICO.



CORTEZ.

IN the second decade of the eventful 16th century, the valiant Ferdinand Cortez commenced the conquest of the Mexican kingdom in the country of Anahuac, the inhabitants of which dwelt in populous towns, carried on their arts and industries, and lived under a distinct form of government with a despotic king who was supported by a wealthy aristocracy and a powerful priesthood—with 700 brave Spaniards, and some of the native population, the Tlascalans, as allies. Cortez subjugated a thickly populated nation which was deficient neither in warlike courage nor in patriotism, carried off its king Montezuma as a prisoner to his palace, and conquered the great seagirt capital of Mexico, the "Venice of the West," with its white towers, and lofty, pyramidal temples. The terrible destruction of the thundering cannon, the horsemen on their plunging war-steeds, who exercised a mysterious power over the imagination of the natives, and the splendour of the European mode of warfare, created among the natives the belief that the white men were of a more exalted nature, whom they, with their insignificant powers and feeble weapons (for iron was unknown to them) could not resist. Nevertheless the Mexicans defended their country and their liberty heroically. They stoned their king, who was inclined to be favourable to the Spaniards, compelled the foreign intruders to make a disastrous retreat after a desperate resistance in the famous "night of sorrow" (from 1st to 2nd of July, 1520), and would have cut them off to the last man, had not Cortez, with resolute action, overthrown their leader, and thus compelled the army to take flight in wild disorder. But neither the brave resistance of the natives nor the hostile attacks of the

Spanish troops despatched by the envious governor Velasquez of Cuba against Cortez, availed to deter the brave general from his enterprise. Within two years Cortez had conquered the country, put an end to the horrible idolatry to which thousands of human beings were annually sacrificed, and already contemplated measures for healing the wounds of warfare and promoting the introduction of European culture and Christian morals, when jealousy and calumny united to effect his recall. He was deprived of the administration of the conquered country, that he might not be tempted to found a kingdom of his own. His elevation to the rank of a noble (Marquis del Balle), and the award of some property and territories on the beautiful Gulf of Mexico, were the only rewards for untold difficulties and dangers. His services were soon forgotten, though, to satisfy the active longing of his soul, he undertook fresh expeditions to Honduras, and discovered California, "a barren, treeless peninsula" (1536). Grief and mortification at the ingratitude of his sovereign shortened his days. He died in Spain in the year 1547.

Pizarro in Peru.



PIZARRO.

FRANCISCO PIZARRO and Almagro, who possessed as ardent a spirit of enterprise and warlike courage as Cortez, but neither position nor culture, and were inspired only by self-seeking and violent passions, accomplished the conquest of Peru with even less assistance than had been at the command of the conqueror of Mexico. The Peruvians, who were governed by the wealthy royal family of the Incas, were a civilized, prosperous people, of gentle temper, sharing neither the cruel idolatry nor the warlike spirit of the Mexicans. A dispute for the throne in the reigning house facilitated the conquest of the country, and of the capital Cuzco (1532) by the Spaniards. In accordance with the command of the powerful ruler, Inca Huazna Copac, his sons Huascar and Atahualpa, divided the kingdom between them; the former reigned over the south including Cuzco, the latter over the north, the newly acquired kingdom of Quito. Quarrels with regard to the

boundary soon led to a war, in which the more powerful Atahualpa vanquished his brother and allowed him to die in prison. But he was not destined long to enjoy his victory. While he was engaged at an interview with Pizarro at Caxamalca, he and his nobles were suddenly surprised by the Spaniards, the king was taken prisoner, and his retinue treacherously slaughtered. Atahualpa desired to purchase his liberty with his treasures; and when Pizarro consented to the arrangement, he procured from the temples and palaces an immense quantity of gold; but the cruel Castilian failed to keep his word, for he was afraid that if the Inca were liberated, he would excite his people to insurrection. He therefore caused the royal prisoner to be sentenced to death by a court-martial, and publicly executed, for pretended blasphemy. He then subjugated the beautiful country, which abounded in gold mines, and founded the new capital of Lima (1535). Soon, however, Pizarro and his two brothers quarrelled with Almagro, the discoverer of Chili, and turned their arms against him. Almagro was vanquished and beheaded, but his death was subsequently avenged by his son, who, with a band of conspirators, surprised and slew Francis Pizarro in his own house (1541). He himself, however, died by the hands of the hangman in the following year, when attempting to possess himself illegally of the governorship.

The savage temper of the conquerors soon brought the state to the brink of destruction; and the oppressed and ill-treated people endeavoured by rebellion to relieve themselves of their despotic rulers. At last the emperor, Charles V., despatched to Peru a wise priest named Pedro de la Gasca, as governor, who, without an army, soon asserted his authority, conquered the rebellious troops, and caused the last of the Pizarros to be executed on the gallows (1548).

A little later the Maranon, or Amazon River was discovered by Orellana, who by his marvellous description of a land of gold (Eldorado), fired the imagination of the Spaniards, and led them on to undertake fresh enterprises.

Great Men of the Time.

Among the remarkable men of this period was Erasmus, of Rotterdam (1467–1536). He was persuaded in his youth to enter a cloister, though his whole nature revolted against the monastic life. With the assistance of the bishop of Cambray he after a time obtained his liberty, and permission to study theology in Paris. Here he took such a dislike to scholastic divinity, that throughout his life he attacked it and also monasticism with all the weapons of his wit and intelligence. Soon his fame extended through all the nations of Europe, and princes and nobles lavished on him their bounties and flatteries, and endeavoured by brilliant promises to allure him to their countries. But he preferred the free profession of literature to any office that was offered him; he travelled through all the states of civilized Europe, and at last took up his residence chiefly at Basle, where, in conjunction with the printer Froben, he published a number of books in the language and spirit of the ancients. Among his numerous works are the "Encomium Moriæ" and the correct edition of the New Testament in the original Greek text with Latin translation and paraphrases. When the contest between the old and the new assumed such large proportions on the appearance of Luther, Erasmus, who was a cautious man and fond of the peaceful enjoyment of life, timidly retired, and attacked Luther's proceedings, of which he had at first expressed approval. Nearest to Erasmus in temper and mental bias was the

English chancellor Thomas More, the witty and intellectual author of "Utopia," a work in which the existing blemishes in State and Church were hinted at by the description of the ideal conditions of a fabulous land of bliss. Like Erasmus, More became later an opponent of the Reformation, and availed himself of his judicial position to persecute reformers. But Nemesis overtook him. He died on the scaffold, because he did not approve of the measures taken by Henry VIII. for freeing England from the Papal supremacy, and because he held firmly to the doctrine of transubstantiation. For the rest, More was a highly estimable man, and an incorruptible judge in office, and he met death with the tranquillity and firmness of a philosopher.

The Art of Painting.



STATUE OF LORENZO DE MEDICI, BY MICHAEL ANGELO.

IN Florence, which under the Medicis was the centre of all intellectual aspirations, the art of painting first received a free impetus. From the calm earnestness and elevated dignity of a Masaccio, the tenderness and religious intensity of a Giovanni da Fiesole and Seb. del Piombo, and the cheerful grace of Andrea del Sarto, it at last reached its climax in the renowned painter Michael Angelo Buonarotti (1474–1563). This great artist, who was master of all arts, laboured at first in Florence, until he was summoned to Rome, where he accomplished his most important works.

The Roman school attained to its highest perfection in the person of Raphael Sanzio of Urbino (1483–1520), who was patronized by the art-loving Popes Julius II. and Leo X. His earliest pictures are in the style of his teacher Pietro Perugino, and the Umbrian school, but he soon superseded all other artists, and accomplished those noble works which still remain incomparable treasures of art.

The greatest ornament of the Venetian school, in which colouring was especially developed, was Titian (1477–1576), whose numerous pictures, especially portraits, are conceived with all the warmth of life, and with all the charm of light and colour.

The Lombard School.—Next to Raphael stands his elder contemporary Leonardo da Vinci of Florence (died 1519), who worked principally at Milan, at the court of Francis Sforza. The most important production of this highly cultured painter, who was distinguished also as a poet and a refined man of the world, is the picture of the Last Supper, on a monastery wall at Milan. He died in France, where he had been summoned by the art-loving Francis I. Besides Leonardo, Corregio (died 1543) also ranks among the first masters. His pictures, in which all the conditions of the soul are pourtrayed with fan-



DANTE IN THE STUDIO OF THE PAINTER GIOTTO.

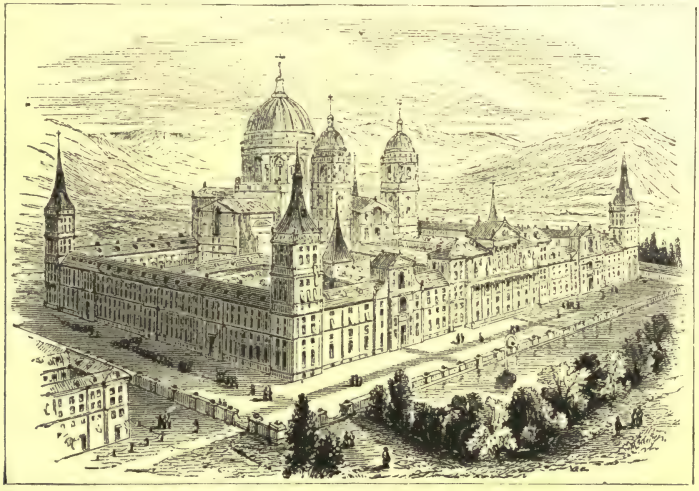
ciful variability, led his imitators into sentimentality and affectation. Among his most celebrated works are the Adoration of the Shepherds, known under the name of "Night," the repentant Magdalen, at Dresden, and his fresco paintings at Parma.

The Dutch school of painting was founded by the brothers Van Eyck (in the 15th century), the painters of the beautiful allegorical altar picture of the Unspotted Lamb of Revelation, at Ghent and Berlin. While the Flemish and Brabantine schools took the great ancient masters for their models, the Dutch followed a free and independent course. To the former belongs P. P. Rubens (1577–1640), whose pictures combine life and animation of composition with beauty of colouring. The principal artist of the Dutch school is Rembrandt (1606–1674), in whose twilight pictures a gloomy defiant temper is united with faithful and fervent perception of nature, and an element of poetic sensibility.

The German School.—While Italian painting has developed the ideal, and the Dutch school has brought to perfection the pourtrayal of real life, the German school stands between the two, uniting with a true perception of nature, and sharp delineation of character, a tender and self-contained temper. Among its principal artists are Holbein (died 1554) and Albrecht Dürer (1471–1548).

This art also attained to great perfection in the 16th and 17th centuries in Spain, where Murillo (1618–1682) distinguished himself by his ardent inspiration and elevated spirit, combined with clearly defined forms and lively colouring. With him we may rank Velasquez (1599–1660), who was celebrated for his portraits.

In England the art obtained a more tardy development. The most memorable of the older painters is William Hogarth (1697–1764), famed for his satirical and humorous representations of social traits.



THE ESCURIAL, THE PALACE OF PHILIP II., MADRID.

The Art of Music.



HANDEL.

MUSICAL art was entirely reared in the bosom of the Church, and the liturgy learned its first language in Latin. The antiphonies, hymns, and vigils which are still used in the Catholic Church, are said to have been introduced by St. Ambrose, Archbishop of Milan (374–397), though the so-called Ambrosian Hymn of Praise, *Te Deum laudamus*, is by an unknown later composer. Pope Gregory the Great (590–604), the founder of a school for singing at Rome, was the author of the choral singing in unison called after his name, which soon spread throughout the whole of Christendom, and was especially promoted and fostered by Charles the Great and Alfred. The development of music in its theoretical form lay for a long time in the hands of the Church. Hucbald, a Flemish monk (died 930), made the first attempts at a system of harmony, and the Benedictine monk Guido von Arezzo's method of instruction in singing met with wide acceptance. The art of contrapuntal treatment was still further developed by Dufay in the 15th, and Ockenheim in the 16th century.

Palestrina, the great composer of church music and the author of many immortal works, was born in 1524. He raised the hitherto abstract knowledge of theories of sound to a noble, and purely ecclesiastical art. Allessandro Scarlatti (1658–1725) was the founder of the Neapolitan school of music, which also included the notable composers, Durante, Leo, and Astorga. Among a large number of composers of a free artistic development, such as Jomelli, Piccini, Sacchini, etc., Pergolese (1710–1737) was especially renowned for his beautiful and devout Stabat Mater.

In contradistinction to the Italian school, German music, which had been practically promoted by Luther himself and his friend Ludwig Senfl, had in the meantime assumed a preponderating Protestant character. John Sebastian Bach (born in 1685 at Eisenach, died at Leipzig in 1750), obtained his artistic method from the Dutch school, and reproduced its contrapuntal art with the vigour of his own mystic intensity. He became, by his noble and elevated ecclesiastical style, the musical representative of Lutheranism, the original hardness of which he preserved even in his manner of composition. His beautiful and moving Passion music, and the incomparable Fugues for organ and piano ("Das wohltemperirte Clavier"), etc., are marvellous creations of genius.

George Frederick Handel was born at Halle in 1685, and died in London in 1759. He was a giant both in body and in mind, and influenced by the original genius of his unsurpassed oratorios the musical tendencies of the whole of the succeeding century. The chief monument of his fame was the "Messiah," "a true Christian epic in tones" (Herder), which pourtrayed the life and sufferings of the Saviour. His remaining oratorios are "Joshua," "Jephtha," "Samson," "Saul," "Judas Maccabæus," and "Israel in Egypt."



JOHN HUSS, AT THE STAKE, SUMMONED TO RECANT.

THE PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION.

ESTABLISHMENT OF NEW STATES UNDER CHARLES V.—GREAT POWER OF THE AUSTRIAN HOUSE.—FRANCIS I. AND HENRY VIII.—PROGRESS OF THE REFORMATION IN EUROPE.—THE LUTHERAN CHURCH.—THE REFORMED CHURCH: ITS BRANCHES AND ITS PREACHERS.—ZWINGLI AND CALVIN—THE GERMAN REFORMATION: ITS CAUSES. — DR. MARTIN LUTHER.—THE NINETY-FIVE THESES AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES. — FREDERICK, THE ELECTOR OF SAXONY.



CHARLES THE FIFTH (1510–1556).

IN the first half of the 16th century the Burgundian-Hapsburg reigning house was in possession of a kingdom such as had not existed since the days of Charlemagne. The representative of the house was Charles V., a man of rare wisdom, astute and cunning temper, and unwearied energy; great in the Cabinet as a wise administrator of state business, and brave in the battle-field as a leader of troops of war. He held all the threads of politics

in his hand, and directed them according to the secret plans of his soul, in the accomplishment of which every means, even falsehood and breach of faith, were deemed by him admissible. Frail in body, and with a melancholy expression on his pale face, he did not at the first glance exhibit the overpowering energy of his mind. While still in his minority he was already ruler of the Netherlands, which fell to him as a paternal inheritance; and as a youth, after the death of his maternal grandfather, Ferdinand the Catholic, he obtained possession of the united Spanish monarchy (1516), with the beautiful kingdom of Naples and Sicily, the newly discovered countries of America, and the fruitful islands of the West Indies. He also inherited the Hapsburg-Austrian States, which he made over to his brother Ferdinand, and at last, through the choice of the electors, became the successor of his grandfather Maximilian on the throne of the German empire (June, 1519). He could with truth say that the sun never set on his dominions. In all these states there existed powers hostile to the reigning monarch, in the subjugation of which different methods had to be employed. In the Netherlands a distrustful citizen-class, imbued with a proud party spirit, watched every action of the ruler of the country, that no encroachment might be made on its privileges; and was always ready, according to the ancient custom, to band itself together under the banner of insurrection, and fight with sword and shield. In Spain the haughty temper of the powerful feudal nobility, and the stubborn strength of a free citizen-class, could only be repressed with violence; and even after the diminution and weakening of civil rights and liberties, the national pride of the Spaniards still demanded judicious treatment and supervision.

In Southern Italy and Sicily the beautiful plains were disturbed by the Osmanli and the North African pirates, who destroyed trade and commerce, and carried off the Christians into slavery; and on the frontier of the Austrian States the Turks made havoc with the sword, and the impetuous Moslem burned with the desire of planting the crescent on the battlements of Vienna. In Germany the numerous princes and nobles dreaded the return to a powerful Imperial rule, under which they would forfeit their rights and possessions, and therefore endeavoured to tie the hands of their ruler at his coronation by restrictions and stipulations. The greatest complication was, however, brought about by the religious schism, in which the emperor's plans and interests were opposed by the wishes of the people and the privileges of the princes. Charles boldly encountered every difficulty; and though he could not vanquish all the obstacles before him, yet he resisted them with dignity and composure. His plan, however, for giving unity once more to the separate States of the German empire, and to the divided Church, and restoring the past splendour of the Imperial crown, and the old supremacy over the Papal see, was frustrated by events brought about by a higher power, which mocked at all human wisdom and calculation. Next to the schism in the Church, he detested republican constitutions and civil and municipal rights; but there was no longer a place in Europe for an absolute universal monarchy with religious uniformity, such as he desired to establish.



ANNE BOLEYN. JANE SEYMOUR. CATHERINE PARR.

Francis I. and Henry VIII.



THE most prominent contemporaneous sovereigns were Francis I. of France, and Henry VIII. of England, two princes who resembled each other in many particulars; for while they derived their chivalrous characteristics from the bygone period of the Middle Ages, they both, by their love of art and knowledge, their frivolous passion for pleasure, and their despotic temper, made themselves the foremost figures of their own day. In many particulars Francis and Henry formed a contrast to Charles; they were as impetuous, rash, and careless, as he was wise, circumspect, and thoughtful. All three were subject to feminine influence; but while the two former allowed themselves to be led in the most important matters by female advisers—Francis laying the foundation of the intrigues which prevailed, to the advantage of the country, and Henry, by his love for Anne Boleyn, hastening the separation of the English Church from Rome—Charles followed the counsels of wise statesmen, especially the cultured and astute Granvella, and the dictates of his own judgment; and only availed himself of female influence when he could, by such means, the more readily attain his end. It was a happy thing for the liberty of the nations that these three princes, who regarded neither national nor human rights, were held back from coalition by the different nature of their interests, and were even disposed to make war with each other. Between Francis and Charles there existed an unquenchable jealousy, caused by the similarity of their efforts and aspirations. In the proud consciousness of their powers, and spurred on by ambition

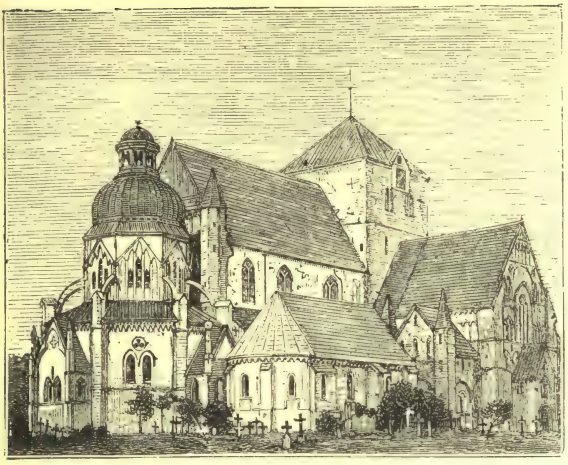
and love of fame, each desired to be the first prince in Europe, and eagerly endeavoured to gain the imperial crown, which alone could confer this superiority. Charles was victorious, and Francis henceforward sought to weaken his power by always espousing the cause of his enemies. In the first rank of these enemies stood Henry of Albret, son of the king John whom Ferdinand had deprived of Upper Navarre, which he united with Castile. Henry, who had married Margaret, the sister of Francis, possessed only Lower Navarre with the little country of Béarn to the north of the Pyrenees; and with the help of his brother-in-law he now wished to regain possession of the whole kingdom. Among Charles's other enemies were the Dutch princes—Charles of Egmont, who defended Guelderland against the aggression of Burgundy, and William of Cleve, who was then at war with the Emperor regarding the possession of the same dukedom of Burgundy; and finally the Protestant princes of Germany. Even with the Turks did the "most Christian" king of France ally himself against his hated rival, who everywhere gained the advantage over him. Had Henry VIII. been a diplomatic prince, he might easily have derived advantage from this state of affairs; but as he only followed his own caprices, and, without political motives, first espoused one side and then the other, he had little influence on the progress of events. By his divorce from Catherine of Aragon, he quarrelled with his nephew, the Emperor, and henceforward allied himself more closely to France.



KING HENRY VIII., FROM A PORTRAIT BY HOLBEIN.

Progress of the Reformation in Europe.

The Lutheran Church.



CATHEDRAL AT DRONTHEIM.

FROM the University of Wittenberg there originated, from small beginnings, the spiritual movement which inflicted the most powerful blow on the hierarchical structure of the Middle Ages. From Saxony and Hesse, which first adopted the new religious form, the Lutheran reformation gradually extended, amid many conflicts, through the neighbouring countries, gained the supremacy in the north of Germany, penetrated into Franconia and Swabia, to the Rhine and the Danube, and made its way from Strasburg to Alsace and Lorraine. The numerous towns of the empire, with their educated citizen-class, were the headquarters of evangelical doctrine. Luther's teaching soon penetrated to the Vistula, where the grand-master of the Teutonic order, Albrecht of Brandenburg, beset by the Poles and the warlike citizens of Dantzig and Elbing, and deserted by the emperor, joined the Evangelical Church (1525), transformed Prussia into a hereditary dukedom, and exchanged the German for the Polish supremacy. The same thing was accomplished in Courland and Livonia by the commander of the sword-bearers, and Luther's doctrine also reached the countries of the Baltic. In Sweden Gustavus Vasa changed the constitution and the church (1527); he created an independent kingdom, introduced the Augsburg Confession, and conferred on the newly-established throne a portion of the Church revenues. In Denmark, Norway and Iceland the victory of the evangelical faith was connected with the issues of the struggle for the throne, by means of which the Lutheran king, Christian III., obtained the supremacy (1536). In Bohemia the old Hussite agitation was re-awakened, and facilitated the importation of evangelical doctrine; but neither there nor in Hungary and Transylvania did the new gospel obtain a complete victory, because the Hapsburg reigning house favoured the old Church in all its states. Nevertheless the numerous believers in the Lutheran Confession obtained in these countries both religious freedom and equality.

More zealously than the first Austrian princes Ferdinand I. and Maximilian II. did the two dukes of Bavaria exert themselves for the maintenance of the old faith, which possessed an active seminary in the University of Ingolstadt. The ecclesiastical body in the empire also remained for the most part in the Catholic Church; for the clergy had no wish to risk their revenues, and their independent position as abbots. In Cologne only did the aged and venerable archbishop Hermann of Wied commence a reformation of a moderate character; but the emperor's victory near Mühlberg resulted in his removal and the suppression of his undertaking.

The Reformed Church.



MEMORIAL MEDAL OF THE CONFESSION OF AUGSBURG.

In the meantime Ulrich Zwingli had commenced in Zurich the reformation of Switzerland (1518). While the thoughtful Luther, who was tortured by inward struggles and the overpowering feeling of the helplessness of men through sin, with his monarchical predilections, worked on the basis of existing things; and sought by the purification of faith, on which alone he declared justification to rest, to influence daily social life; Zwingli, who was a free, light-hearted republican, went back to the original state of Christianity; and in his sense of the necessities of practical existence, sought first of all to improve life and morals, and to give a new aspect to the confederacy in its moral, ecclesiastical, and political relationship. Unfortunately the various conceptions of the doctrine of the Lord's Supper soon brought about a new schism in the Church. Zwingli's active reformation took root in Zurich and Berne, in the Rhine valley, and in the eastern cantons, and would probably have penetrated throughout the whole confederacy, had not the battle of Kappel (1531), where Zwingli and the flower of the Protestant citizens of Zurich died a heroic death, put a stop to its extension.

Greater in its extent and operations was the Reformed Church of Calvin, who coincided with Luther in his narrow Augustinian doctrine of predestination, but agreed with Zwingli with regard to Church constitution and discipline, and in the conception of the Lord's Supper occupied a middle position between the two. The beautiful town of Geneva, situated on the boundary of Savoy and France, became the headquarters of that democratic Calvinism which made rapid progress through Italian Switzerland—which in the northern provinces of the Netherlands advanced victoriously with political independence—which was recognised in the south of France by over two thousand communities—which numbered adherents in Italy and Spain and in the vicinity of the Pope and emperor—and which, in its extreme form, planted its banner on the ruins of the cloisters and cathedrals, as the Presbyterian Church of Scotland. Calvin's doctrines even penetrated to Germany, and increased the schism and disunion. In the Rhenish Palatinate the Calvinistic faith, which was laid down in the Heidelberg catechism, obtained the supremacy, which excited such irritation among the Lutheran princes, that the Elector felt himself obliged to enter into an alliance with foreign states (the Netherlands, England, and France) to secure himself against attacks.

In France the old and new Churches long strove together for the victory. Francis I., who was allied with the Protestant princes of Germany and with the schismatic king of England, was frequently invited to revolt from Rome. He also often meditated the subject of a reformation, and caused urgent invitations to be sent to Melancthon. But partly his alliance with the Pope, who made over to the king the appointment of ecclesiastical offices, and who

appeared indispensable to his recovery of the dukedom of Milan—and partly his despotic temper, which disposed him to hate every free popular movement, kept him fast to the old Church. Religion was as much regarded at the court as in Italy; but it was hardly possible that voluptuous and pleasure-loving courtiers could find satisfaction in the severe morality of Calvinism. Soon,



TROUBLES IN GERMANY—DESTRUCTION OF A PRINTING OFFICE.

therefore, commands were issued against the publication of Calvinistic and Lutheran writings; the boldest reformers died in the flames, and the destruction of several districts in Provence inhabited by Waldenses, proved the earnest intention of the court to maintain the old Church in its accustomed ascendancy.

In Spain the Inquisition soon put an end to Protestantism; suspected

believers either died in horrible dungeons or on the funeral pile (*autos da fé*), the favourite popular show. In Italy the enemies of the hierarchy greeted the new movement with delight. In all the larger towns the evangelical doctrine gained adherents, especially in Ferrara under the support of the duchess of Este; but the spirituality of German and French Protestantism could not become the popular cause among so artistic a people. Therefore, when the danger was recognised at Rome, and a tribunal of the Inquisition was established with terrible powers, many escaped across the Alps; others recanted, and degenerated into frivolity, indifference, or madness. Fearful of the mighty eloquence of martyrdom, the Inquisition struck terror by means of imprisonment, the galleys, and secret execution. In Calabria only, some Waldenses were hunted like wild beasts. Towards the end of the century the traces of every Protestant community had vanished. Among the fugitives were highly esteemed theologians and prelates. With a few exceptions they pined away in foreign countries. In Spain and Italy, where every one who abjured the doctrines of the Church was persecuted with equal severity, a few thinkers formulated theories which were rejected as heretical, even by the reformers themselves; as, for instance, the two Italians,—Socinus, who denied the Divinity of Christ and the doctrine of the Trinity, and who founded the far-spreading sect of Socinians or Unitarians;—and the Spaniard, Michael Servetus, who was burnt to death at Geneva, at Calvin's instigation, on account of his fanatical opinions regarding the Trinity. In England the followers of Luther, the old Lollards, were at first cruelly persecuted; until Henry VIII. quarrelled with the Pope concerning his divorce, caused the English Church to be separated from Rome, and declared himself its supreme head. But with the exception of the dissolution of the monasteries and the destruction of the sacred images, nothing was accomplished in his reign for the purification of the Church. Lutherans and Papists died on the same gallows.



CALVIN.

Not till the reign of Henry's son Edward VI. (1547–1553) was the English Church established by means of Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury. The next sovereign, Mary (1553–1558), endeavoured to annul his work, and to restore Catholicism by burning the reformers; but the Act of Uniformity of her sister Elizabeth gave the victory to the Anglican religion. On the other hand the Puritans, who strove for the purification of the Church according to

the principles of Calvin, were cruelly persecuted, and were compelled to fly to the free soil of North America, where, split up into numerous sects, they brought to perfect development the democratic system of that reformer. In Ireland the old faith remained the religion of the people, although the sovereigns of England endeavoured by tyrannical laws to procure recognition there of the religious decrees of Parliament, and divided the whole Irish Church property among the English hierarchy and aristocracy. The Irish people, who were badly instructed in the new doctrine, and were not ripe for the intellectual conception of Christianity, preferred to obey the exhortations of their priests rather than the commands of their hated neighbours, particularly as the gospel in the English language was as incomprehensible to them as the Latin mass.

THE GERMAN REFORMATION.



LUTHER TEACHING CHILDREN.

SINCE the hopes that had been raised by the great councils at Constance and Basle had died away, ill-humour and dissatisfaction had prevailed throughout all classes in Germany at the condition of ecclesiastical affairs. The princes were angry that all their remonstrances with the popes, to induce them to undertake a voluntary reformation of the Church, remained unheeded; that ecclesiastical jurisdiction impeded the course of civil justice; that the Papal Court, through the extension of its rights of dispensation and other privileges, absorbed everything into itself; that by means of the annates, the appointment of foreign cardinals to benefices, the exaction of fines, and the taxation of the churches of the land, the country was being drained of its riches. The German prelates were vexed at the encroachments on their privileges made by the Roman

Curiæ. The lower clergy regarded with envy the mendicant friars, who, endowed with high privileges by the Roman see, used them with great influence among the people. The pious took umbrage at the worldly conduct of the prelates, and the immorality of many of the clergy. The enlightened party or men of progress were indignant at the superstition which was purposely fostered among the people, and which showed itself in the exaggerated worship of images and relics, and in the veneration of the saints. The philosophers looked down with contempt on the ignorance, stupidity, and intellectual sluggishness of too many of the monks and clergy, while they at the same time attacked the artificial structure of scholasticism and church doctrine, partly with the philosophical weapons of classic antiquity, and partly by investigation of the Holy Scriptures, to which the people had no access, and of the writings of the Fathers of the Church. The towns of the empire found themselves prejudiced in many ways by the freedom of the clergy from their laws and institutions; their privileges were frequently violated; the right of asylum interfered with the exercise of civil justice and the police, the monasteries and the frequent saints' days encouraged begging and knavery, which was above all obnoxious to the respectable citizen class. No wonder, therefore, that the popular literature directed its satirical attacks and mockery chiefly at the monks and clergy. In Saxony and the neighbouring districts the seeds of the Hussite heresy were not yet entirely exterminated, and fostered a spirit of opposition in the common man, who was often injured by the high taxes imposed by a Church whose indifferent pastors gave him little consolation in time of trouble.



PRINTING THE FIRST SHEET OF THE BIBLE.

Dr. Martin Luther.



LUTHER AND MELANCTHON.

MARTIN LUTHER was born at Eisleben on the 10th of November, 1483. His father was a miner belonging to a peasant family at Möhra, which afterwards migrated to Mansfeld. Here in the healthy mountain air of the Thuringian Forest Luther grew up under strict discipline. As his father designed him for the study of the law, he was sent in his fifteenth year to school at Eisenach, and afterwards to the University of Erfurt. For four years he diligently pursued his studies there, until his painful solicitude regarding the salvation of his soul, the sudden death of a friend, and his own narrow escape in a heavy thunderstorm, made him resolve to enter a monastery. On one last occasion he made merry with his friends with song and wine, and then withdrew to the quiet cell of an Augustine monastery. Here he fulfilled conscientiously all the duties and services of a mendicant friar; but neither self-abasement and mortification nor the indefatigable study of theology could alleviate the sadness of his soul, and the painful longing of the creature for union with his Creator. The inactive life in a solitary cell increased his tendency to mysticism, and added to his melancholy and mental sufferings, until at last he found peace in the belief that man will be saved, not through his own works, but through his belief in the mercy of God through Christ. At the command of Staupitz, the principal of the order, who had won Luther's confidence, and had given him consolation and guidance, he went in 1508 to Wittenberg, to give theological lectures at the University recently established by the elector Frederick the Wise. In this congenial field of labour he soon displayed the greatest activity. He fulfilled his duty as preacher and guardian of souls; he interested himself in the concerns of his monastery, for which in 1511 he undertook a journey to Rome, and he delivered lectures and engaged in intellectual labours, which were partly aimed at the interpretation of Holy Scriptures, and partly at the counteraction of scholasticism and self-righteousness.



LUTHER AND THE NINETY-FIVE THESES.

The Ninety-five Theses.

ABOUT this time the Elector Albrecht of Mayence, at the instigation of Leo X., and to provide means for building St. Peter's Church, caused an indulgence to be offered for sale, in which the purchaser was promised forgiveness of sins, the attainment once more of the grace of God, and liberation from the punishment of hell-fire. Albrecht, who took half the profit, engaged the services of a Dominican named Tetzel, who went so noisily to work that Luther, who saw that true penitence and the authority of the confessional would be thereby endangered, felt himself compelled to issue the ninety-five Theses, which were nailed to the door of the church at Wittenberg on the Eve of All Saints', 1517. In these propositions he contested the validity of remission without repentance, denied that the Pope had the right to give absolution to others than penitents, and declared that the indulgence could only save from Church punishment, but could not confer the grace of God. He also testified to the difference between false penances and true penitence, between formal creeds and inward faith, between a dead self-righteousness and truly good works. The bold action of a man whose deep religious earsestness could not be doubted met with great sympathy throughout Germany, especially among the cultivated youth; and this interest was still further increased by the feeble arguments with which Tetzel and other champions of Papal supremacy endeavoured to confute him.

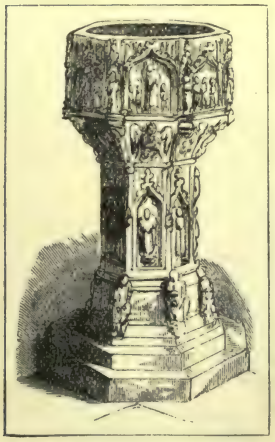
The Curiæ caused Luther to be summoned to Rome; but on the intercession of the Elector, who was favourable to the reformer, the Papal nuncio, the learned Dominican Cajetanus, held the trial at Augsburg (1518). The proud prince of the Church believed he should easily confute the humble monk with his scholastic learning; but Luther showed more depth and erudition than he had given him credit for. After a short disputation, Cajetan commanded him to depart, and not to appear before him again until he was recalled. After issuing an appeal to a Pope to be better instructed, Luther escaped from Augsburg with the assistance of a few friends. In vain did Cajetan demand of the Elector either to surrender the audacious preacher at Rome, or to banish him from his states; Frederick replied that Luther's demand to be tried before an impartial tribunal appeared to him just. Partly approval of Luther's evangelical temper, and partly regard for the welfare of the university and for public opinion, decided the brave prince to espouse his cause.



THE STRIFE OF THE REFORMATION.

THE DISPUTATION AT LEIPSIC.—THE SENTENCE OF EXCOMMUNICATION.—THE DIET AT WORMS.—LUTHER FACE TO FACE WITH THE PAPACY.—THE REFUGE AT THE WARTBURG.—ORIGIN OF THE SCHISM IN GERMANY.—TROUBLES AND UPRISINGS AMONG THE PEOPLE; THE PEASANTS' WAR.—THOMAS MÜNZER, THE FANATIC.—ATTITUDE OF ULRICH VON HUTTEN, FRANZ VON SICKINGEN, AND OTHER MEN OF THE TIME.—POPULAR LEADERS; GÖTZ VON BERLICHINGEN, ETC.—CRUELTIES OF THE PEASANTS.—VIOLENT PUTTING DOWN OF THE MOVEMENT.

THE LEIPSIC DISPUTATION.



IN the January of 1519, the Emperor Maximilian died. Until the quarrelsome electors agreed in the choice of a successor, Frederick the Wise carried on the administration of the government in Northern Germany, and it was generally desired that he himself should wear the Imperial crown. This state of affairs served Luther's purpose. The Pope, who dreaded the return of mediæval Imperialism if the choice fell on the powerful and diplomatic Charles, secretly favoured the candidature of the French king Francis I., and therefore endeavoured to win over Frederick to his side. He despatched his chamberlain Miltiz, an accomplished Saxon nobleman, with a golden rose, the sign of Papal favour, to the chamberlain. Miltiz summoned Luther to an interview, declared him right with regard to the abuses of the indulgence, which he unfeignedly censured, and by means of friendly representations as to the disadvantages of a rupture, and the assurance that the scandalous proceeding should be discontinued, obtained from him the promise that he would drop the dispute regarding the indulgence, if his

opponents would also be silent on the subject. At the same time Luther promised to encourage obedience and veneration for the Roman see, and to assure the Pope in a letter that it had never been his intention to interfere with the privileges of the Papal crown. And both these assurances he openly and honourably fulfilled. Not long afterwards John Eck, professor at Ingolstadt, invited the Wittenberg theologians, Dr. Carlstadt and Luther to a disputation. This took place at Leipsic (1519), in the presence of the duke and many distinguished listeners. On this occasion Luther disputed the assertion of Eck that the primateship of the Pope was derived through Peter from Christ Himself, and proved that the Bishop of Rome had become the head of the Church, not through Divine right, but through the human institution of later centuries. Eck, who could not refute Luther's arguments, cast at him the reproach of Hussite heresy, and thus extorted from him the bold assertion that there might be some essentially Christian and evangelical doctrines in the teachings of Huss, and that it would be difficult to prove the infallibility of the councils.

The Sentence of Excommunication.



MELANCTHON.

PHILIP MELANCTHON of Bretten (1497–1560), who, shortly before the disputation, had been summoned to Wittenberg as a teacher of Greek and Hebrew literature, had accompanied Luther to Leipsic, entered with enthusiasm into all his plans, and endeavoured as friend, counsellor, and mediator, to further his schemes to the utmost. While Luther's vehement and impetuous strength was directed towards the pulling down of abuses, Melancthon's gentle and pliable nature was more adapted to the work of reconstruction. Under Melancthon's influence the Saxon university and Church system reached a state of prosperity; and learning as well as Protestant theology honoured in him one of its greatest promoters.

While Luther and Melancthon, in their different ways, were both attaining to the conception that the Papacy was not a Divine institution, and neither it nor the councils could claim infallibility, Eck wrote a learned book, in which from the Papal decrees and the Fathers of the Church, he sought to establish the opposite theory; and hastened with it to Rome, where he met with a very favourable reception. At his instigation a sentence of excommunication was issued (1520), in which a number of Luther's doctrines were condemned as heterodox, his writings were ordered to be burnt, and he himself was threatened with excommunication if he did not recant within sixty days. Eck then returned in triumph to Germany, where, as the Papal plenipotentiary, he proclaimed the bull with great ostentation. But in Cologne, Mayence, and Louvain only, was the command for the burning of Luther's writings complied with; in Saxony the bull was not even regarded, and there was great indignation throughout the whole of Germany at the sentence of condemnation which the court of Rome, without having

heard the accused, had promulgated under the influence of his greatest opponent.

In this state of feeling, Luther's two publications, "To the Christian Nobility of Germany," and "The Babylonian Captivity and Christian Freedom," made a powerful impression. Encouraged by the enthusiasm with which these works were received, Luther now ventured on a step which separated him with an impassable chasm from the Romish Church. He advanced at the head of the whole student class before the Elster gate of Wittenberg, and by way of retaliation for the burning of his own writings, cast the ban of excommunication, with the canonical book of law, into the flames, with the words: "Because thou hast grieved the holy ones of the Lord, mayst thou be consumed by eternal fire."



LUTHER AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WITTENBERG.

THE DIET AT WORMS (APRIL, 1521).

WHEN the young emperor, Charles V., proceeded up the Rhine after his coronation at Aix-la-Chapelle in the beginning of the year 1521, Sickingen and other champions of national liberty eagerly conjured him to place himself at the head of the movement, and to promote the establishment of a national Church of Germany. But Charles comprehended neither the language nor the character of the people whose crown he wore; and his own convictions and the persuasive art of the Papal delegate, Alexander, made him from the first an opponent of the Reformation.

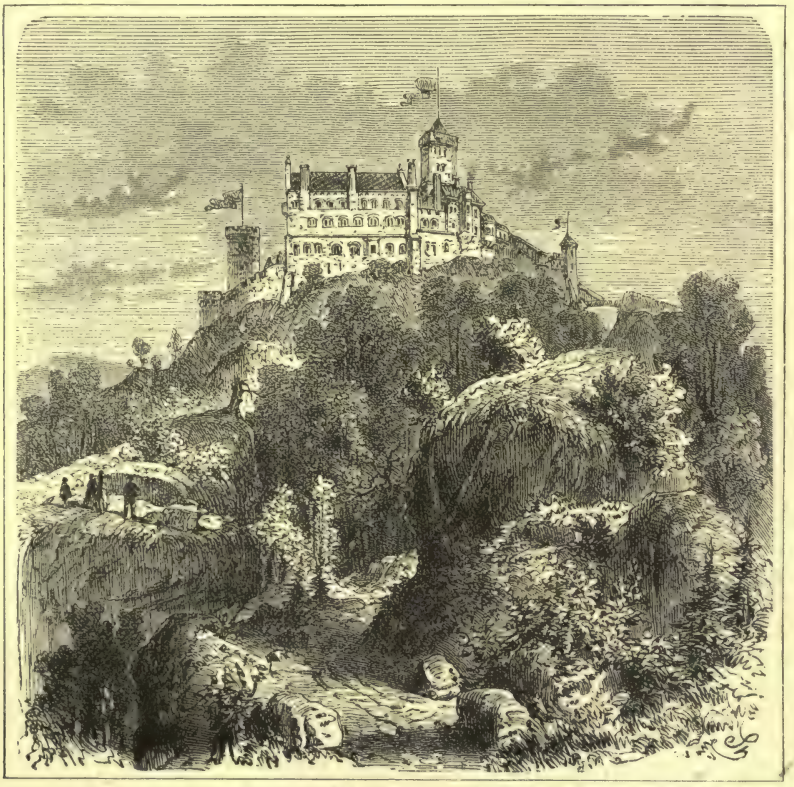
Luther now received a summons to attend the Diet at Worms, which he obeyed—not without fear of experiencing the fate of Huss, but steadfastly relying on his confidence in God. The brilliant assembly, at which besides the emperor and nuncio, many princes, lords, prelates, and municipal delegates were present, at first disconcerted him. When asked to recant, he begged to be allowed to consider until the following day. On his second appearance, however, he had entirely regained his strength and composure, and the expectant interest of the numerous assembly filled him with animation. Frankly and openly he declared himself the author of the writings placed before him, repelled the invitation to recant with the declaration that as long as he was not convicted of error by the words of Holy Scripture, he could not and would not recant, because his conscience was imprisoned in the word of God, and concluded, according to an old tradition, with the exclamation: "Here I stand. I can say nothing else. God help me! Amen!" All attempts to induce him to make a more moderate declaration were fruitless; but the interest and enthusiasm of nobles and people were expressed so unrestrainedly, that it was impossible to have recourse to force. Luther departed unharmed, and several princes and deputies did likewise. Then only was the ban of the empire pronounced against Luther and his followers, and his writings were condemned to be burnt. Charles V., now in close alliance with the Pope, was determined to exterminate heresy.

The Wartburg.

LUTHER, however, was already in safety. On his homeward journey the Elector Frederick caused him to be taken and detained as a prisoner at the Wartburg. Here he remained for nearly a year, at first lamented by his friends, until spirited letters against the confessional, monastic oaths, etc., and an indignant epistle to Albrecht of Mayence, who once more disposed of an indulgence, convinced them that he still lived. Albrecht, however, repented, and dropped the transaction. While Luther led an active existence at the Wartburg, though much tried with ill health and melancholy, there arose disturbances at Wittenberg, caused by the innovations of a new reformer, Dr. Carlstadt, who abolished mass, gave the cup to the laity at the sacrament, and waged war against images and ceremonies. Soon there were allied with him the so-called Zwickau Prophets, men without culture, and dominated by fanatical opinions; who inveighed against infant baptism, because, in their view, a sacrament without faith had no meaning, and who combined with the re-baptism of adults, whence they obtained the name of Anabaptists, all kinds of fanatical opinions of direct inspiration from God. In some of the churches images and priestly robes were destroyed—monks and nuns escaped from the cloister, and confusion everywhere prevailed. Luther could now no longer rest at the Wartburg. He hastened to Wittenberg, preached daily for a week against precipitate, lawless innovations, repelled the fanatics of Zwickau, and won over the public mind to a peaceful development of the Reformation.

Origin of the Great Religious Quarrel in Germany.

Pope Adrian VI. (1522–1523), once professor at Louvain and the instructor of Charles V., was a learned and amiable man, and was averse to the abuses of the Church, no less than the Lutheran reformers. He abolished simony and the sale of indulgences, and restrained within bounds the luxury of the court; thereby rousing the ill will of his Italian courtiers, who missed in him the elevated taste and refined culture of his predecessors, and had little esteem for his severe moral life. To the joy of the frivolous-minded Romans, he



THE WARTBURG, AS RESTORED AT THE PRESENT DAY.

died in the second year of his pontificate, and Clement VII. (1523–1534), a Medicis, became his successor. This wise and cultured prince, who had equally at heart the extension of the Church-state and the aggrandizement of his house, and the welfare of the Church, believed that with diplomatic skill and the refined arts of the Cabinet he could check the powerful Church movement. But what he succeeded in gaining in one quarter he lost doubly in another. Under the mediation of his nuncio, Cardinal Campeggio, the Duke of Bavaria, Ferdinand of Austria, and most of the South German bishops entered into a league at Regensburg for mutual protection and the exclusion of the Wittenberg innovations from their countries. In vain did the princes who favoured

the evangelical party endeavour to rouse their followers to united action with regard to ecclesiastical affairs, and with this object proposed a general meeting at Spires. The emperor, who was now the Pope's ally, forbade the assembly, and induced the latter to strengthen himself by establishing the Anti-league of Torgau for mutual co-operation against every attack on the word of God (1526).

It is true that shortly afterwards Charles, who had quarrelled with the Pope concerning affairs in Italy, permitted the assembly at Spires; but it was soon evident that a general reform of the German Church was not yet practicable,



ATTACK ON TRAVELLERS IN THE THURINGIAN FOREST.

therefore it was conceded to every class in the kingdom "so to regard the edict of Worms as he could answer it before God and the Emperor's majesty," and at the same time permitted to every lord of the soil to regulate the conditions of the Church in his own territory according to his discretion, until a free council should make universal decisions. Thus the axiom *cujus regio ejus religio* prevailed, and the seeds of an unfortunate rupture were scattered in Germany just at the moment when the freedom and independence of the nation was the aspiration of its noblest spirits.

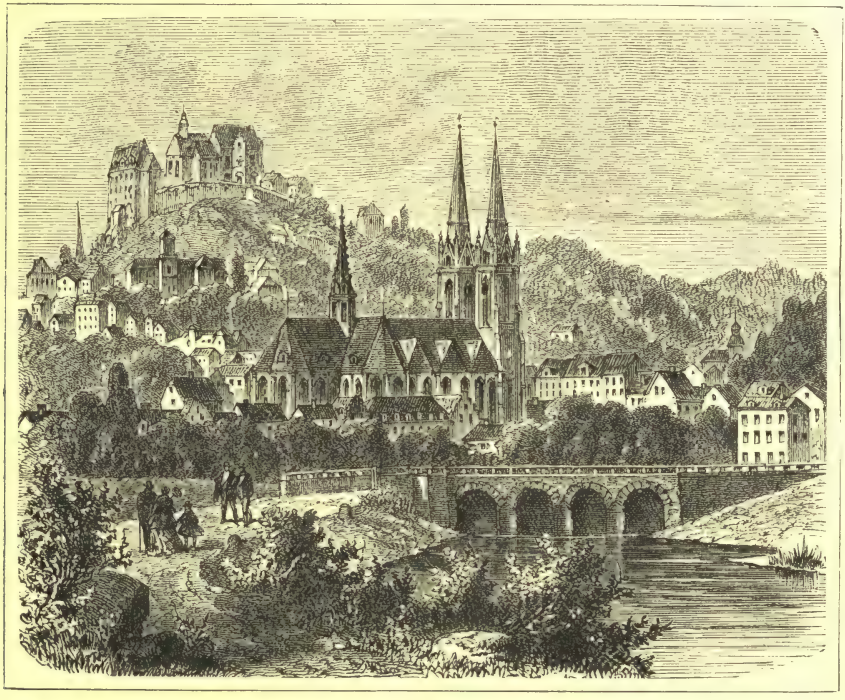
The Peasants' War.

THE powerlessness of the temporal authorities, combined with the tyranny of a rude aristocracy whose luxury and self-indulgence increased the burdens of the lower classes, at last excited, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, a general movement of revolt among the oppressed people. Signs of rebellion had already shown themselves in the Netherlands, where large bands of peasants marched up and down the country, displaying on their banner "Cheese and Bread." The subjects of the Abbot of Kempten expelled their harsh master, and obtained for themselves better conditions, and at Spires, Schlettstadt, and in the Rhine districts, the "Shoe-league" raised the standard of insurrection. With the most terrible oaths the leaguers swore fidelity and secrecy. In Swabia the oppressive taxation and the debasement of the weights and measures by the extravagant Duke Ulrich of Wurtemberg led to an armed rising of the peasants' league "of poor Conrad." In Austria and Carinthia also, threatening movements took place, and in Hungary the people had taken up arms against the nobility and clergy. Besides relief of their material needs, the German peasants also demanded the abolition of ecclesiastical courts of justice; they did not wish to be judged by jurists according to the laws of Rome.

Though these different insurrections were soon repressed, they were nevertheless indications of a far-reaching, embittered feeling, and might be regarded as forewarnings of a great conflict. The remembrance of these events had not yet vanished when the general call to freedom and independence, which, since Luther's appearance, had resounded throughout Germany, excited among the peasant classes bold aspirations and desires, which were fostered by different circumstances.

At first Sickingen, Hutten, and others appear to have favoured the movement with the view of placing themselves at its head, and accomplishing with the sword the political and religious reformation of Germany. Sickingen's quarrel with the Archbishop of Treves is said to have caused the commencement of the conflict. As Luther, however, disapproved of every violent proceeding, and did not wish the word of God to be protected by weapons of the flesh, Sickingen's undertaking did not meet with the desired support; and his death at the siege of his fortress, Landstuhl, delayed the outbreak of the rebellion for two years. Then several Anabaptists, who had been driven out of Saxony, especially the fanatical Thomas Münzer, traversed South Germany, spoke of the abolition of spiritual and temporal power, and the establishment of a heavenly kingdom where all men would be equal, and all disparity between rich and poor, noble and commoner, would disappear. These doctrines penetrated as far as the Black Forest and the district round the Lake of Constance, where the example of the neighbouring country of Switzerland, which, with its own strength alone, had broken the power of foreign despotism, excited emulation, and where the Austrian Government sought with extreme severity to maintain old institutions, and thus provoked a feeling of bitterness. Before long all the population from the Wirbach to the Dreisam gathered round Hans Müller of Bulgenbach, who had formerly been a soldier, and now offered himself to the peasants as their leader. Bearing with them twelve Articles, which they were prepared to enforce with the edge of the sword, they marched from place to place, demanding right of hunting, fishing, wood-gathering, etc., the abolition of serfdom, of feudal compulsory labour and tithes, the right of choosing their clergy, and the free preaching of the gospel.

The example of the North was soon followed by the peasants in the Odenwald, on the Neckar, and in Franconia, under the leadership of the bold George Metzler of Ballenberg. They compelled the Counts of Hohenlohe, Löwenstein, Wertheim, Gemmingen, the principals of the German orders at Mergentheim, and others to accept the Articles, and whoever ventured to resist them died a violent death. Burning and destroying all before them, they marched through the country, obeying only the dictates of their rude and vehement nature, destroying fortresses and monasteries, and taking bloody vengeance on their adversaries. Under the guidance of brave leaders, such as Florian Geier and Götz von Berlichingen, they traversed the Würzburg district, while the other bands ravaged the Baden country, expelled the Mar-



MARBURG.

grave Ernst, who would not yield to their demands, and detroyed his castles Soon the rebellion spread through the whole of Swabia, Franconia, Alsace, and all the country on both banks of the Rhine. The spiritual and temporal lords were now overcome with fear, and agreed to the demands of the peasants. The Elector of the Palatinate entered into a treaty with them; the small towns, which had suffered much through the arrogance and brutality of the rapacious nobility, espoused their cause, and even in the larger towns popular fermentations showed themselves in a similar manner.

In Thuringia and on the Harz Mountains the insurrection was inspired more by religious fanaticism. At Mühlhausen, Thomas Münzer was held in high esteem, and had obtained the renown of a prophet. He rejected Luther's moderate opinions, girded himself with the "sword of Gideon," and wished to establish a kingdom of God, with perfect liberty and equality of

all members. Carried away by his preaching, the people in their wild fury destroyed castles and monasteries, and all the memorials of antiquity.

At the commencement, when the rebellion had not assumed such a threatening aspect, Luther counselled peace; he restrained the princes and lords of the soil from acts of violence, and at the same time admonished the peasantry to desist from the rebellion. When the danger increased, however, he issued a violent manifesto against "the rapacious and murderous peasantry," in which he implored the authorities to have recourse to the sword and to exercise no compassion. Thereupon princes and warriors flocked together from all sides, and took up arms against the rebels. The Elector John of Saxony,



WANDERING BANDS OF INSURGENTS.

Landgrave Philip of Hesse, and others, marched into Thuringia, and won, by means of their guns and well-disciplined mercenaries, an easy victory over Thomas Münzer and his badly armed infatuated band of peasants, who, singing and praying, awaited the intervention of heavenly hosts on their behalf (1525). At Mühlhausen the gallows were destroyed, on which the "prophet" of Thuringia had met his bloody death after cruel tortures, and in Frankenhausen the warriors waded in the blood of the whole male population. About the same time the peasantry of Alsace succumbed to the troops of Duke Anton of Lorraine; in spite of the treaty that had been concluded, they were surprised as they were retiring, and 17,000 men were slain. Their leader Erasmus was tied to a willow-tree, and amid derision was cruelly put to

death. In Swabia the Lord High Steward of Waldburg, captain of the Swabian league, restored tranquillity, and then, having joined the Palsgrave of the Rhine and the warlike Archbishop of Treves, he marched against the Franconian troops, who were besieging the fortified castle of Würzburg. Here also superior skill and weapons triumphed over the undisciplined masses. After a short resistance they betook themselves to disorderly flight, in which the greater part met their death.

Similar event took place on the Middle Rhine, where the united troops of Treves and Basle scattered the insurrectionists, and restored order. In the Black Forest and in the district near the sources of the Danube, the Lord High Steward of Waldburg and the renowned warrior George of Frundsberg met with greater resistance; but fire and murder soon thinned the ranks of the insurgents, and here also peace was once more established. In most of the countries the peasantry were again oppressed by all their former burdens; as the beginning of the peasant war was nothing but a wild act of violence, so its conclusion was nothing but an act of revenge, an inglorious victory of state discipline without inward cure. No new life germinated from the wild deeds of destruction; and only a few owners of the soil were gracious enough to agree to some terms of relief. The Lutherans in particular, to whom was attributed the origin of the insurrection, were special objects of revenge on the part of the princes, prelates, and land-owners.



THE WAR IN ITALY;

AND PROTESTANT CONFESSIONS OF GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND.

WAR OF CHARLES V. AND FRANCIS I.—MILAN CONQUERED.—BATTLE OF PAVIA, 1525.—TREATY OF MADRID.—ROME PLUNDERED BY THE SOLDIERS OF CHARLES V.—THE PROTESTATION IN GERMANY, 1529. —THE CONFESSION OF AUGSBURG, 1530.—THE RELIGIOUS TREATY OF NUREMBERG.—THE REFORMATION IN SWITZERLAND BY ZWINGLI. —RELIGIOUS WAR OF THE SWISS CONFEDERATES.

THE FRENCH-ITALIAN WAR OF CHARLES V. (1521–1529).—CONQUEST OF MILAN.

BY the battle of Marignano, Francis I. had become master of Milan, Genoa, and a large part of Lombardy. But scarcely had Charles V. obtained the crown of Germany than he asserted the old feudal right of the empire over northern Italy, which the Emperor Maximilian had endeavoured to secure by conferring the crown of Lombardy on his relative, Louis Moro. This, combined with other circumstances, brought about a bloody war in which Swiss and French fought side by side, while German landsknechte, mercenary troops under the brave leaders George of Frundsberg, Schärtlin, and others, formed the chief body of the imperial army. At that time wars were carried on with mercenaries, and no nation could compare for such troops with the Helvetians and Germans. The Pope, the King of England, and Venice were on the side of the Emperor. To these united forces the French, who were hated on account of their tyranny and arrogance, were soon compelled to yield. Milan was conquered (1521), and the legitimate heir, Francis



ITALY : ELECTION OF A DOGE IN GENOA.

Sforza, to the joy of the people, was installed as duke under imperial supremacy. Soon Genoa also fell into the hands of the allies, and the French found themselves driven back across the Alps. It was in vain that in the following year Bonnivet, with a noble army, undertook the reconquest of the beautiful country. For the second time the imperial troops were victorious, and pursued the French across the Alps. During the retreat the brave Bayard, the *chevalier sans peur et sans reproche*, fell by the ball of a German arquebusier. This fortunate result Charles owed chiefly to a French general, the brave Constable de Bourbon. This prince, who, next to the king, was the richest and most powerful nobleman in France, possessed two dukedoms besides five other dominions, and had even raised his eyes to the royal crown itself. He had, however, been neglected by the French court, injured by the intrigues of the king's mother, Louise of Savoy, and threatened with the loss of his most

important possessions. Filled with indignation, he had escaped to Italy, and offered himself as general to the Emperor (1523). As such he now advanced, thirsting for revenge, with his mixed and motley army of Germans, Spaniards, and Italians, across the western Alps into France, and already dreamed of the conquest of the country, when his attack on Marseilles was frustrated by the brave resistance of the citizens. The army slowly retreated, and after a time dispersed in all directions.

Battle of Pavia, 1525.



THIS great fight was brought about by the rashness of the King of France, who now advanced across the Alps at the head of a splendid army. In a very short time all the country as far as the Tessin was in his power. But while he was halting before the walls of Pavia, where a brave garrison of German landsknechte, in conjunction with the Ghibelline citizens, bade defiance to all attacks, the active Bourbon succeeded in collecting fresh troops from the German districts, and uniting his forces with the Spanish general Pescara. But the withholding of their pay and want of provisions soon brought the combined armies into great straits, while the rich camp of the French contained abundance of all necessaries. This state of affairs afforded Bourbon and Frundsberg an opportunity of rallying the landsknechte to a fierce attack on the enemy. A nocturnal sally became the occasion of a bloody battle (24th February, 1525), which, in spite of the favourable position and the bravery of the French, ended in their complete defeat. Francis himself was compelled to surrender himself a prisoner, after a spirited resistance. He was at once carried off captive to Madrid. He wrote to Louise of Savoy, declaring that all was lost save honour. Ten thousand soldiers met their death on the battle-field or in the waters of the Tessin. While, however, Charles V. compelled his opponent, to whom a long captivity was unendurable, to accept the treaty of Madrid (1526), in which Francis, with secret protest, swore to renounce his claims to Milan, to surrender Burgundy, and to withdraw protection from the enemies of the Emperor, a league was formed, at the instigation of Pope Clement VII., for the liberation of Italy from Spanish rule.

The Plundering of Rome.

SCARCELY had Francis reached French soil, after surrendering his two sons as hostages—and, breathing again the air of freedom, had once more been inspired with a feeling of the power and honour of France,—when the Pope made overtures to him, absolved him from his oath, and concluded with him, with Henry of England, and with several Italian princes, the so-called Holy League against Spain (1527). At the same time the Parliament of Paris declared that the cession of the dukedom of Burgundy curtailed the rights of the kingdom, and that an extorted treaty of peace was of no effect. This was the signal for another appeal to arms. Once more the savagery of warfare broke out in Italy; once more the trumpet resounded in the towns of Germany, calling the landsknechte to arms. As the struggle was directed against the Pope, the Lutherans collected together in bands, so that the brave Frundsberg was able in a short time to lead a powerful army across the Alps, and to ally himself with Bourbon. But they were soon in want of money for pay for the troops; the ill-humour of the mercenary soldiers increased to open insurrection, and their threats made such an impression on Frundsberg that he was struck speechless by a fit of apoplexy, and soon afterwards died. They demanded to be led to Rome, and Bourbon conceded their request. On the 6th of May, 1527, the Spanish and German troops scaled without difficulty the walls of Rome. Amongst the first to fall was Bourbon. Without a leader, the rapacious hordes now spread through the streets of the city, and repeated the scenes of the period of Vandalism. Splendid palaces and dwelling-houses were plundered, churches were robbed of their vessels and ornaments; in the Vatican the captains lighted their watch-fires; and the Germans ridiculed the Pope and cardinals with mummeries and processions, while the Spaniards gave themselves up to immorality and sensual pleasures. Clement waited in vain in the Castle of St. Angelo for the advent of the allied army. He was compelled to purchase his liberty with hard conditions, and availed himself of the first opportunity to take to flight.

The Emperor showed pain and vexation at the misfortune experienced by the head of the Church, although he rejoiced greatly in his heart at the humiliation of his opponent. In the meantime the French made conquests in Northern Italy, and then marched into Naples, to take that kingdom from the Spaniards (1528). But the desertion of the Genoese Andreas Doria from France to the Emperor's cause, and the destruction of a great part of the French army by a plague, with a disorderly retreat from Naples to Aversa, put an end to this enterprise; and as the number of the Imperial landsknechte had dwindled away to one-half by their dissipated life at Rome, and the burden of war pressed heavily on the different nations, peace was unanimously desired. Through the mediation of the mother of Francis, and Charles's aunt, the quarrelsome kings agreed, in the so-called "Peace of the Ladies" (1529), that Francis should renounce his claim to Milan, and should pay two millions of crowns for the liberation of his sons, but on the other hand should retain possession of Burgundy. Soon afterwards the Pope and the Italian states also made their peace with the Emperor, under conditions which secured his supremacy over Italy. Clement VII., who was concerned at

the progress of the Lutheran reformation in Germany, and indignant that the Medicis had been driven out from Florence, became reconciled with the Emperor, who promised him his help in the extermination of heresy, and



SIXTEENTH CENTURY MANNERS: TOURNAMENT OF PATRICIANS IN ROME.

in the chastisement of the presumptuous republic. After Charles had received at Bologna, where he dwelt for some time with Clement under one roof, the crowns of Rome and Lombardy, he deprived Florence, after a hard

siege, of its republican constitution, and established there a Medici as duke, and at the same time he summoned an assembly at Augsburg for the settlement of the divisions in the Church.

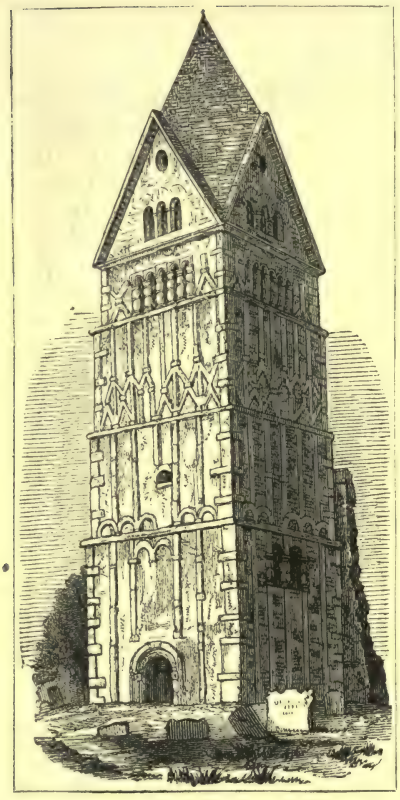
THE PROTESTATION (1529).



THE BIBLE IN GERMANY.

THE progress of the Reformation caused grave anxiety to the Catholic princes, spiritual as well as temporal. In Bavaria and Austria, Cologne and Mayence, efforts were made, by supervision of the press, by severe and degrading punishment of the reformers, and even by burning the evangelical preachers, to uphold the supremacy of the orthodox Church. Through the alliance of the Pope and the Emperor, the party now obtained the preponderance; and at the assembly of Spires (1529) they drew up an alteration of the earlier decision in the following terms:—"Whoever has hitherto upheld the edict of Worms shall continue to do so. In the districts where it has been departed from no further innovations shall be made, and no one shall be prevented from holding mass. No ecclesiastical body shall be deprived of its rights." Against this manifesto of the diet, by which the reformation was sentenced to a dead stagnation, Saxony, Hesse, Lüneburg, Anhalt, the Margrave of Brandenburg, and fourteen towns of the empire, among which were Strasburg, Augsburg, Nuremberg, Ulm, and others, brought forward a protestation, and appealed to the Emperor for a general or a German council and impartial Christian judges (19th April, 1529). From this time forth all those who rejected the authority of the Pope and the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church obtained the name of Protestants. As the Emperor refused to accept the protestation, which was brought to him in Italy, a league of defence would have already been concluded between the Protestant princes and towns, had not Luther and the evangelical theologians set up the theory of suffering obedience, disdained protection of the Word of God by worldly weapons, and discountenanced a union with the followers of Zwingli, whose doctrine of the Lord's Supper found acceptance in several towns of south Germany.

The Confession of Augsburg (1530).

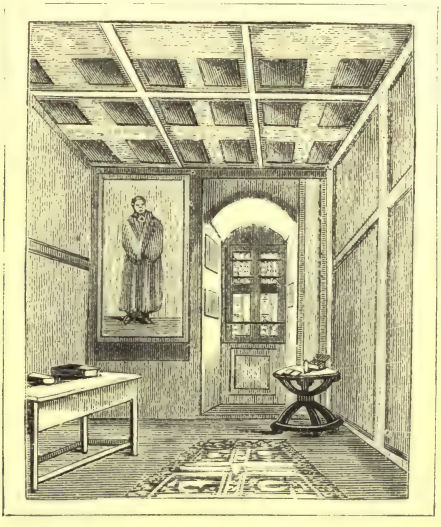


EARLY in the year the Emperor marched across the Alps to the opening of the diet, which was summoned at Augsburg, resolved to bring back the apostates to the Church, or to revenge the disgrace to the name of Christ. The assembly was numerous and splendid. The Protestant classes handed in their Confession, which had been drawn up by Melancthon and approved by Luther, in which they endeavoured to point out that they organized no new Church, but only desired that the old one should be restored and purified. After the reading of the Confession, the most zealous opponents were of opinion that war was the only reply to it; but the moderate view prevailed, that every means should be used to promote a reconciliation, and that the first point should be the refutation of the evangelical declaration. The confutation, which was drawn up by Eck, Cochlæus, and others, and in which a justification of Romish doctrines and usages was attempted, made, however, but little impression through its weak method of argument; therefore an attempt was made to bring about an understanding by a conference between suitable men of both parties. On this occasion they actually arrived at an agreement over most of the dogmas; but with regard to the ceremonies and constitution the attempt was fruitless. The Pope was opposed to an understanding; and Luther, who, as a proscribed man, could not be present at the diet, and therefore remained during the deliberation at the fortress of Coburg, pronounced against further concession. It appeared, therefore, that the sword must effect a decision, and the Emperor already assumed a warlike attitude. But notwithstanding the dangers which a longer resistance might draw down on the evangelical party, and though it was distasteful to the peaceable princes to disobey the Emperor, the Protestant princes as well as the most important towns rejected the decree of the diet, in which they were forbidden to propagate their doctrine, and were designated as a sect whose confession of faith could be refuted with good arguments from Holy Scripture. Melancthon's defence (apology) of the confession proved to the world the falseness of this declaration; whereupon the evangelical party, after handing in their protestation, quitted the assembly without awaiting its conclusion. The manifesto of the diet (of the 19th November), which was drawn up after their departure, in which the new sect was threatened with speedy extermination, and the ban was pronounced on all its followers who did not renounce their presumptuous innovations within a certain time, terrified neither the princes, who regarded the peace of their own consciences higher than the favour of the Emperor, nor the

Wittenberg reformers, whose steadfastness and trust in God was then at its highest, as shown in the hymn which originated in this stormy period : *Ein' feste Burg ist unser Gott*, which has been rightly termed, "Luther's heroic song."

The Religious Treaty of Nuremberg.

RELYING on the manifesto of the diet, the courts of justice now took steps against the evangelical party for confiscation of ecclesiastical property and judicial prosecutions. The Protestant princes and towns who saw in this the commencement of hostilities, at once formed a league at Schmalkalden, in the Thuringian Forest (1530), for mutual protection in case any one among them should be attacked for the sake of God's word. At a second meeting at Frankfort more particular resolutions were arrived at, and the Elector of Saxony and the Landgrave of Hesse were recognised as the chiefs of the league. This occurred at the same moment as the election and coronation of Ferdinand as king of Rome, which was brought about in spite of the legislature of the empire, and which excited dissatisfaction, and brought new members to the league ; and also at a time when the Turks were threatening Hungary and Austria with another invasion. Consequently the Emperor gave up the idea of a violent extermination of the religious reformers ; and while measures were being brought forward at a new diet at Regensburg for an effectual defence of the frontier, entered with the league into the treaty of Nuremberg (1532), in which both parties promised that they would not have recourse to hostilities until the council met which the Emperor and Clement were eagerly endeavouring to call together. The judicial proceedings were in the meantime to cease, but the treaty was to include those only who had already accepted the Confession of Augsburg. This arrangement tied the hands of the Protestants without affording them security for the future. Soon after this Elector John passed away, and bequeathed the work of reformation to his son, John Frederick (1532–54) for completion.



LUTHER'S STUDY.

The Reformation of Switzerland by Zwingli (1518-1531).



GENEVA.

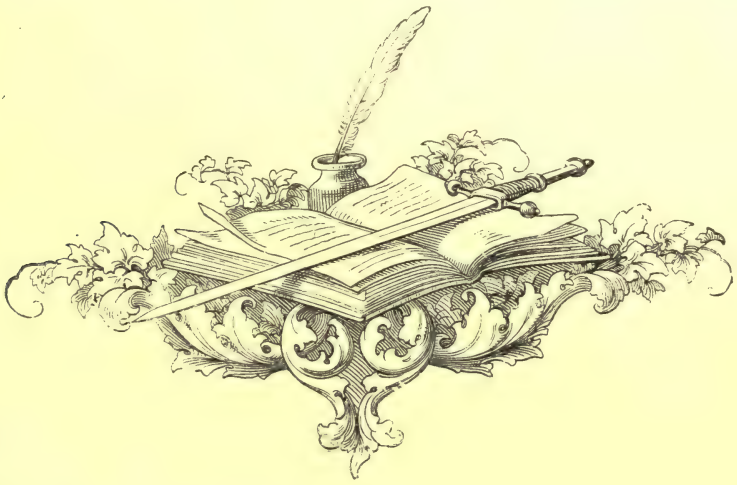
ULRICH ZWINGLI (born 1484), an intelligent, cultivated theologian, first preached against the service of mercenary soldiers while a pastor at a small town of Switzerland. When summoned to Zurich in 1519, he endeavoured with all his power to improve the conditions of the state, Church, and general life. Assiduous study of the Holy Scriptures had led him, already filled as he was with the sentiment of republican freedom, to theories which were antagonistic to the dominant Church. As, however, he was wanting in Luther's penetration, and had not experienced his mental conflicts, he did not, like the latter, make the reform of doctrine and faith the chief aim of his activity, but aimed rather at the improvement of morals and of life. He also prosecuted his work with more vigour; for while Luther remained within the Church, and only abolished what was in contradiction with the words of Scripture, Zwingli sought to restore the simplest conditions of Christianity, and wished to do away with everything which could not be justified in the Bible. According to his view, the ecclesiastical power lay in the community, which, however, declared its wishes, not in popular assemblies, but by its representatives, the civil authorities; therefore, after delivering two religious discourses at Zurich, he undertook, in conjunction with the great council, a complete revision of Church doctrines and usages (1523); caused allimages, crosses, altars, etc., to be removed from the churches; and administered the Lord's Supper, in which he recognised only a sign of remembrance and communion, after the fashion of the primitive Christian love-feast, the bread and wine being handed to the believers as they sat at long tables.

The Religious War of the Swiss Confederates.

IN the ancient cantons of Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, as well as Lucerne and Zug, the new doctrine met with determined opposition. These five cantons followed the example of Austria and Bavaria. They prevented the propagation of the new doctrines by strict regulations; inflicted degrading punishments on the evangelical preachers and their followers; and burnt to death those priests who were not deterred by the prohibition. The relentless proceedings of the inhabitants of Berne and Zurich in the domains and territories jointly governed by the confederates, where monasteries, images, and church ornaments were given up to the flames, increased the feeling of exasperation, and brought about hostilities. The Protestant cantons established among themselves and with Strasburg and Constance a "Christian right of security." The Catholic cantons, on the other hand, entered with Austria, the hereditary enemy of the country, into an alliance for the preservation of the old faith and for mutual support (1529). Zurich then prepared for war.

Zwingli himself accompanied the troops, and kept them in obedience and the fear of God." But before a battle occurred, a peace was arranged in which the "forest-towns" surrendered to the Austrian alliance, and promised to punish the abuse directed against the reformation, and not to interfere with free preaching. Zwingli had been opposed to the peace. His scheme was so to transform the political condition of Switzerland that the two most powerful towns, Berne and Zurich, should obtain pre-eminence.

It was soon evident that the mediation had effected no reconciliation. The abuse continued, and the demand of the people of Zurich to have the blasphemers silenced, and evangelical doctrines tolerated among them, met with no response. The council of Zurich, in which Zwingli held a prominent position, wished by a new recourse to arms to compel their opponents to permit the free preaching of the Gospel, and to consent to the constitution of the confederacy; but Berne, jealous of the commanding superiority of the neighbouring republic, attacked its warlike opponents with great courage and pertinacity. In spite of Zwingli's warning, the proposition of the Bernese was accepted. The northern cantons stopped up the high roads of commerce, and prevented the conveyance of merchandise and provisions. This roused the indignation of the separatists. They secretly prepared for war, and invaded the Zurich district. The inhabitants, surprised and irresolute, and deserted by the Bernese, advanced with a small band of troops to meet the overpowering forces of the enemy, but experienced near Kappel a bloody defeat (1531), in which the patriotic Zwingli was slain. This result filled the Catholics with confidence and the Protestants with apprehension. The former were strong and united, while the Bernese, who were envious of the growing strength of Zurich, evidenced but little zeal. At last a peace was arranged, in which every canton was awarded the right of free regulation of its religion; but in places where opinion was still undecided, the old Church was generally established.





THE PERIOD OF THE RELIGIOUS WARS IN GERMANY.

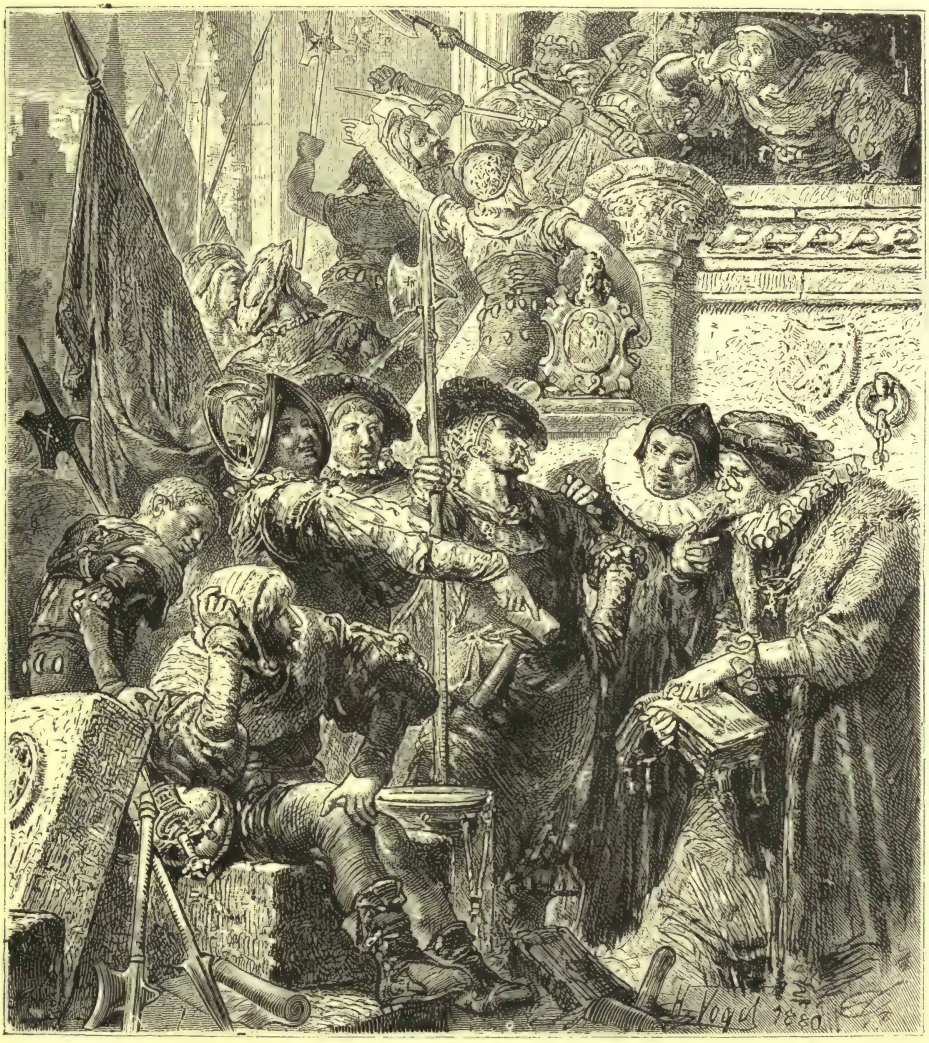
FRANCIS I. THE RIVAL OF THE HAPSBURG HOUSE.—NEGOTIATIONS WITH POPE PAUL III.—ENTERPRISES OF CHARLES V. IN THE EAST.—AFFAIRS IN ITALY.—TREATY OF CRESPY.—AFFAIRS IN GERMANY.—THE ANABAPTISTS OF MÜNSTER.—JOHN OF LEYDEN AND KNIPPERDOLLING: THEIR FATE.—RELIGIOUS CONFERENCE AT RATISBON.—LUTHER'S DEATH.—THE SMALKALDIC WAR.—PREPARATIONS AND ALLIANCES.—MAURICE OF SAXONY.—THE CAMPAIGN ON THE DANUBE.—SCHÄRTLIN.—JOHN FREDERICK, THE ELECTOR.—CAMPAIGN ON THE ELBE.—BATTLE OF MÜHLBURG.—TRIUMPH OF CHARLES V.—IMPRISONMENT OF JOHN FREDERICK AND OF PHILIP OF HESSE.



MEDAL OF JOHN, DUKE OF SAXONY.

THE mighty power of the house of Hapsburg excited general apprehension. Francis I., who had by no means relinquished the idea of a reconquest of Milan, and was endeavouring at least to secure the claim of his sons to it, maintained alliances with all the opponents of the Emperor; and after the marriage of his son Henry with the Pope's niece, Catherine de Médicis, he entered into a close understanding, in 1535, with Clement, who had quarrelled with the Emperor. In the same year, after Charles by a valiant feat of arms had conquered Tunis, put an end to the piracies of the Mohammedan Corsair chief, Hayraddin Barbarossa, and set twenty thousand Christian slaves at liberty, Francis Sforza died at Milan. The French king thereupon renewed his claims to the dukedom, and in an energetic campaign took speedy possession of the neighbouring territory of the Duke of Savoy and Piedmont. Charles then marched into Provence with a powerful army in 1536, to fight his opponent in his own country; but the enterprise failed, partly through the tactics of the French general, the Constable De Montmorency, and partly through the brave resistance offered by Marseilles to the Emperor's attacks. After sustaining great losses, Charles was compelled to desist from the contest. But great indignation prevailed throughout Christendom at the French king's alliance with the Osmanli, who had carried their devastations to southern Italy and the Greek islands. Then the new Pope, Paul III., came for-

ward as a mediator, and brought about the conclusion of this third war by the ten years' truce of Nice, in which it was provided that each one should keep what he held in his possession at that time, 1538. A personal interview between the two monarchs appeared to have effectually extinguished the quarrel; and Charles was so convinced of the chivalrous good faith of his rival, that in



THE WAR: LANDSKNECHTE LEVYING CONTRIBUTIONS ON A NOBLEMAN'S HOUSE.

the following year, when a rebellion in Ghent necessitated his speedy presence in the Netherlands, he took his way to the Low Countries through Paris.

But envy and jealousy had taken root too deeply to allow of the continuance of peace. The enemies of the Emperor found continual encouragement and assistance at the French Court; and the support which the Sultan received from Francis rendered all the Turkish campaigns of the Emperor unavailing. And yet to gain the victory over this enemy of Christendom was the great

aim of the Emperor, next to the healing of the breach in the Church. He therefore not only energetically entered into the Hungarian campaign, but also in 1541 undertook a second African expedition for the complete repression of the Corsairs, who now from Algiers, as formerly from Tunis, rendered the Mediterranean unsafe. But the storms and rains of late autumn, combined with the onslaughts of the enemy, doubly dangerous on the marshy soil, rendered this enterprise fruitless. After heavy losses in men and ships, the Emperor, who magnanimously shared all dangers and hardships with the common soldiers, was compelled to retire discomfited. This result inspired the French king with the hope of at last overpowering his rival. The murder of two negotiators from the French Court, who were travelling secretly through Lombardy to Venice and Constantinople, afforded the king the desired



FLEET OF THE TIME OF CHARLES V.

opportunity of commencing, in conjunction with the Duke of Cleves and the Sultan, a fourth war against the Emperor, who was allied with England. The frontier countries on the side of Spain, Italy, and the Netherlands were cruelly devastated; but when Charles, after having conquered the Duke of Cleves, and compelled him to renounce his claim to Guelderland and Zütphen, invaded Champagne, and after a two days' march approached the terrified capital, Francis eagerly held out the hand of peace, and a treaty was concluded at Crespy in 1544, by which it was stipulated that all conquests should be given up. The expectation held out to the king of acquiring Milan for one of his sons was but a delusion. The supremacy of the Hapsburgs in Italy remained from that time forward undisputed. Three years later, in 1547, Francis I. died;—a magnificent prince, a patron of art and science, and one who succeeded in maintaining the independence of France against his formidable foe, the Emperor Charles V.



CAPTURED CITIZENS BROUGHT BEFORE AN ANABAPTIST LEADER.

THE ANABAPTISTS IN MÜNSTER, 1533-1535.

DURING the peasants' war, the Anabaptists had been almost exterminated; but their teachings still prevailed here and there in spite of persecutions from the government and from German and Swiss reformers. In Westphalia, the reforming party had been completely victorious, in spite of the opposition of the nobility and clergy; and at Münster the bishops and canons and some councillors, who were attached to the old faith, were driven out, and only allowed to return on promising that they would not in future prevent the free preaching of the gospel. It was soon evident, however, that the most influential preacher of the town, Rottmann, cherished Anabaptist views. It was in vain that the moderate men in the council and among the citizen-class endeavoured to resist his influence. His talents and engaging presence gained him followers, and when the wandering prophet, Jan Matthiesen, a baker of Leyden, with his fellow townsman and disciple, John Bockhold, called John of Leyden, arrived in Münster from the Netherlands, their party soon obtained such ascendency that they over-

threw the civil government, filled the council and all the offices with their partisans; and at last, urged on by fanaticism and avarice, drove out of the towns all those citizens who opposed their doctrines, and divided the property of the expelled burghers among themselves.



The Fall of the Anabaptists.

A RELIGIOUS commonwealth was now established, in which Matthiesen possessed unlimited power, introducing community of property, sending out prophets, and conducting the defence of the town against the besieging army of the bishop, who was supported by Cologne and Hesse. Fanaticism reached its height when Matthiesen was slain during a sally, and Bockhold became the head of the commonwealth. In obedience to pretended Divine inspiration, the alleged source of all his commands and institutions, the latter gave up the control of the town to twelve elders, chosen from the most fanatical enthusiasts, among whom Knipperdolling played the most important part as burgomaster and hangman. He then introduced polygamy, and caused his opponents, who were incensed at this insult to Christian morals, to be pitilessly executed. When the fanatical mania had reached its highest point, the prophet, at the instigation of one of his followers, assumed the title of "King of the New Israel." Decorated with the insignia of royalty—a crown and a ball, representing the earth, hanging to a gold chain—and clad in robes of royal splendour, John, "King, by the grace of God, in the new temple," held a court of justice in the market of Münster, where the "seat of David" was established; and introduced a fanatical, despotic government, in which spiritual pride went side by side with sensuality, and pious devotion and self-sacrifice were offensively blended with bloodthirsty barbarism and degrading love of coarse enjoyment.

For a long time the Anabaptists successfully and spiritedly resisted the badly armed troops of the besiegers. As a consequence of this, Anabaptist risings occurred in the towns of the Rhine and in different districts of South Germany, which filled the princes and government with alarm, and caused them to obtain reinforcements from the empire for the besieging army. There soon arose a terrible famine in the town, which was cut off from all supplies; but the fanatics showed no signs of pusillanimity—and relying on help being sent them by their wandering prophets, who were preaching throughout the country, they persisted in their resistance. Even when the enemy was at last within the walls, they still fought on with the courage of despair, and only surrendered on conditions which, however, were not regarded by the infuriated landsknechte. Rottmann, the preacher, is said to have perished in the fight; John of Leyden, Knipperdolling, and Krechting were taken prisoners, tortured to death, and then gibbeted from a church tower in iron cages; and those who did not fall in the attack on the town, were either hunted to death or executed. The expelled party now returned, civil rights and liberties were annulled, the supremacy of the hierarchy and the nobility



THE LAST MOMENTS OF JÜRGEN WULLENWEBER.

was restored, and Catholicism was again introduced with all its ceremonies and rigour.

The defeat of the Anabaptists at Münster was at the same time a victory of the aristocracy in the North German towns over the democracy of the guilds, who had for a time obtained the rule. In Lübeck the bold burgomaster, Jürgen Wullenweber, who stood at the head of the malcontents and democrats, wanted to procure for the Hanseatic League the sovereignty of the Baltic, Denmark, and the Sound. He had already made himself master of Copenhagen, when he was degraded from his office, as "an innovating miscreant," and led away captive to Wolfenbüttel, where he was tortured, and afterwards executed, his companion and coadjutor Max Mejer, having already undergone the same fate. Both were enterprising men of patriotic spirit, whose great fault was that "they measured a degenerate race according to their own standard."

The Hanseatic League declined from the time of the death of Jürgen Wullenweber, who was executed at Tollenstein, near Wolfenbüttel, on the 24th September, 1537.

Religious Conference at Ratisbon, and Luther's Death.



HEN the Diet of Ratisbon met, in January, 1541, another attempt at conciliation was made by Melancthon, the pious and tolerant legate Contarini, and some equally moderate-minded men, such as Julius Pflug and others. In the four most important articles of faith, they actually arrived at something more like an agreement than had been till then achieved, so that the moderate deputies at the Diet urged an immediate arrangement, of which their points of agreement should be made the basis, while the points of dispute should be reserved for the decision of a council. But the Pope, who suspected treachery in the pliability of his legate, and, indeed, Luther and the Elector also, who regarded the whole scheme as a trap, opposed every means of conciliation. Charles now relinquished the idea of a peaceful solution of the difficulty, so long as foreign wars occupied his attention; he endeavoured to preserve the peace of Germany by treaties and alliances; but after he had concluded peace with France, and agreed to an armed truce with the Turks, he took determined steps for the forcible repression of the religious innovations. His first efforts were made in 1544, in the bishopric of Cologne and in the dukedom of Cleve, for he saw that from thence evangelical doctrines might easily penetrate to the Netherlands. The Protestant princes looked on with indifference while the Duke of Cleve, who was on the point of joining the Smalkaldic League, was compelled to desist from the reform which had been commenced in his own territories, while legal proceedings were taken against the Archbishop Hermann at the instigation of the chapter of Cologne; and in the Netherlands Protestant preachers were burnt to death, and their followers persecuted with the utmost cruelty. With grave anxiety did Luther look forward to the result of the approaching conflict. But he was mercifully spared the pain of beholding the labour of his life threatened and jeopardized. He had long been a great sufferer from bodily ailments; he died on the 18th February, 1546, at his birthplace, Eisleben, to which town he had been summoned to act as mediator and bring about an accommodation in a quarrel between the Counts of Mansfeld. His body was brought to Wittenberg with much funeral pomp and ceremony, the procession being accompanied by numbers of people who poured forth to meet it from all parts.

Smalkaldic War. Preparations and Alliances.



CENTENARY MEDAL TO COMMEMORATE THE CONFESSION OF AUGSBURG.

A FEW months before Luther's death, Paul III. had summoned a general council, in December, 1545, at the town of Trent, in the Tyrol. But the Protestants, who foresaw that their principles would be condemned by such a council, formed and acting under the influence of the Pope, rejected it as a partisan assembly, altogether wanting in independence; and demanded a church congress of the German nation. This destroyed the last hope of the Emperor for a peaceful termination of the religious quarrel, at a time when the Smalkaldic League had become more disunited than ever, through the moroseness, dissensions, and lukewarmness of different members, and when the advice of religious zealots had gained great influence with the Emperor. By an alliance with the Pope, Charles obtained considerable pecuniary aid, with which he set about making warlike preparations in Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands. The Duke of Bavaria was won over by the hope of obtaining the dignity of Elector of the Palatinate; the spiritual princes of the empire already supported the Emperor, who had also gained an ally in one of the most influential of the Protestant princes, the Duke Maurice of Saxony. This youthful, talented, and warlike prince, who in 1541 succeeded his father Henry in the Albertinian portion of Saxony, had long since renounced the Smalkaldic League out of enmity to his cousin, John Frederick, with whom he lived in a continual state of strife; and joined the Emperor, although Philip of Hesse was his father-in-law. At the Diet at Ratisbon, in March, 1546, at which no Protestant princes were present except Maurice, Margrave John of Cüstrin, and Albert of Bayreuth, the ambitious Maurice was induced by the prospect of an extension of his dukedom and the office of protector over the bishoprics of Magdeburg and Halberstadt, to renounce his relatives and his comradeship with the Evangelicals. He also promised in a treaty to render homage and obedience to the Emperor, and to recognise the decisions of the Council of Trent; stipulating, however, for a verbal declaration to himself and his two Protestant allies, that in the three chief points, the cup, the marriage of ecclesiastics, and justification by faith, no alteration was to be made throughout their territories.



MAURICE OF SAXONY.

The Campaign on the Danube.



LANDGRAVE PHILIP THE MAGNANIMOUS, OF HESSE.

THE Emperor was still in Ratisbon, when the Smalkaldic League, terrified by a vague and threatening answer given to its inquiry as to the object of the war preparations, quickly summoned its forces, and brought forty thousand men into the field. The Protestants had so little suspicion of the alliance of the Emperor with the Saxon duke, that on marching out with the troops the Elector entrusted the administration of the Electoral dominions to his cousin Maurice; and the heads of the league, out of regard for the supposed neutrality of Ferdinand and the Duke of Bavaria, rejected the prudent counsels of Sebastian Schärtlin of Burtenbach, who had been chosen as their leader by the North German towns. This astute general desired, by a rapid march on Ratisbon, where the Emperor was posted with only a small body of troops, to bring about a decisive conflict as speedily as possible; but the council of war prohibited this, for fear of offending Bavaria. Schärtlin therefore immediately marched into the Tyrol, gained possession of the narrow pass near Füssen, and was proposing to advance into the mountainous district in order to bar the passage of the Italian troops, or to disperse the council of Trent, when this enterprise also was forbidden, that Ferdinand might not be annoyed. Thus Charles, who had already pronounced the ban of the empire against the Elector and the Landgrave, for high treason towards the Emperor, gained sufficient time to obtain auxiliary troops from Italy, and to take up a strong position in Ingolstadt. The publication of the ban of the empire at first made many pause and hesitate, particularly as the Emperor endeavoured to deprecate the idea that he intended kindling a religious war. But an intercepted communication from the Pope to the Catholic party in Switzerland opened the eyes of the Protestants concerning the alliance between Charles and Rome, and the object of the war; and anger and indignation at the deception pervaded the ranks of the Protestant army. A defensive document was issued, refuting the accusations put forward in the ban, and a number of violent pamphlets inciting the nation to resistance against an emperor "who, instead of being the chief of the empire, had made himself the assistant partisan of the Pope, and against whom, therefore, the people had with justice taken up arms." In the meantime the Elector and the Landgrave had themselves undertaken the command, and at Ingolstadt commenced their attack on the Emperor, to whom they were considerably superior in numbers. In vain did Schärtlin counsel a decisive onslaught; they wasted their time in petty skirmishes, until the troops from the Netherlands had joined the Imperial army, and Charles was in a position to act on the offensive. He marched into Swabia. The rival forces were still equal in numbers; and as the cold.

wet climate occasioned diseases among the Spanish and Italian troops, the Protestants, who had kept close to the Emperor with their army, had a right to expect a just and favourable treaty, though Charles, for the moment, would hear of nothing but unconditional surrender;—when the news of the treachery of Maurice reached the camp at Giengen, and spread terror on the one side and joy on the other.

After Maurice had allayed the fears of the deputies in his states regarding the religious reforms, and had obtained through Ferdinand, with whom he made an arrangement for the dividing the territories of Electoral Saxony in Bohemia, the Emperor's promise of the Electoral dignity and the chief part of his cousin's dominions, he marched his army into the Electoral territory,



RELIGIOUS CONFERENCE.

with the view, as he declared, to prevent its occupation by the Emperor; and he quickly conquered one town after another. When this intelligence reached him, John Frederick hastened back into his own states; and as want of supplies at the same time made itself felt in the Imperial army, while the North German towns refused further subsidies, and the mercenaries deserted in masses, towards the end of the autumn the whole Smalkaldic army melted away. The Landgrave and the other leaders returned home, to make fresh preparations for the beginning of the next year. South Germany now lay open to the Emperor. Friendly counsellors endeavoured to induce him to give freedom of religion, and thus to bring back all parties to loyalty and obedience. But Charles had greater and more ambitious plans. Through the submission of the Protestants to the council, he wished to give back to the Imperial power



ST. PETER'S CHURCH AND ST. PETER'S PLACE, ROME.

its old authority, to exalt it alike over the princes of the empire and over the Pope, and to lay the foundation of a new order of things in State and Church. He therefore demanded of the representatives of the North German towns unconditional surrender, and that they should give up the Smalkaldic League. The terrified towns, in which the merchant classes who were filled with anxiety for their trade and treasures had the chief influence and authority, surrendered precipitately, and under extremely unfavourable conditions. Ulm gave up its cannon and ammunition, and purchased pardon from the Emperor by large sacrifices of money; and Heilbronn, Esslingen, Reutlingen, and other towns followed its example. Augsburg was so well furnished with arms and provisions, that Schärtlin offered to hold the town "for a year and a day," until the Protestant districts of Germany should have recovered from their panic and have made fresh preparations for war; but the timid counsels of the merchants, and especially of the Fugger family, prevailed, and Augsburg submitted. With the town the Emperor gained some excellent artillery and large sums of money. Frankfort and Strasburg were also soon brought to submission. The old Duke Ulrich of Würtemberg humbled himself to Charles, paid a war fine, and gave up possession of his most important fortresses for the Imperial troops. The aged Elector Hermann, of Cologne, who had been excommunicated by the Pope, menaced by the Spanish troops, and at last deserted by his town-deputies, abdicated his throne and made way for a successor attached to the old faith, who quickly abolished the religious worship, and substituted for it the service of the mass. By the beginning of the year the whole of South Germany had been brought to obedience without the necessity of striking a single blow. Schärtlin, who had been placed under the ban of the empire, took service with the French Government.

The Campaign on the Elbe.



In the meantime John Frederick had repulsed Maurice's troops. He gained possession of his country once more with little difficulty, and conquered the greater part of Albertine Saxony, with the exception of Dresden and Leipzig. Everywhere he was greeted with acclamations by the Protestant population. In Bohemia the Hussite spirit had once more awoke; the deputies of the parliament met together at Prague, with the intention of depriving Ferdinand of the throne, and allying themselves with Saxony. In Silesia and Lusatia the people rose against the Austrian government; the north German towns maintained a defiant attitude towards the Imperial military commanders; and France and England declared their readiness to assist. But John Frederick was not an enterprising man. He had taken up arms only for the defence of his faith; in his pious heart the inherited veneration for the Emperor was not extinguished, though he had been outlawed and placed under the ban; and he disdained foreign aid. In their distress, Maurice and Ferdinand appealed for help to the Emperor. Thereupon Charles, in spite of the feeble state of his health, hastened at once with an army to Bohemia, joined his allies at Egra, and then advanced to meet the enemy, who, six thousand men strong, had taken up a position on the Elbe. The death of his old adversary Francis I., which happened at this time, appeared to favour



THE ELECTOR JOHN FREDERICK SURRENDERS AT MÜHLBERG.

Charles's plans. On the approach of the Emperor, John Frederick wished to withdraw with a few troops to the fortress of Wittenberg, until he could collect the scattered divisions of his army; but the imperial army, 27,000 strong, crossed the Elbe under the guidance of a peasant, surprised the retiring horse-soldiers on a Sunday morning while the Elector was attending Divine service, and won an easy victory in the battle of Mühlberg on the 24th of April, 1547, on the Lochau heath. John Frederick, a man of unwieldy and ponderous build, was wounded in the face, and after a brave resistance was taken prisoner. The same fate befel his comrade, Duke Ernst of Braunschweig-Lüneburg. During his imprisonment, John Frederick exhibited the tranquillity of soul which results from a good conscience and firm confidence in God. Without even discontinuing the game of chess in which he was engaged, he heard with the greatest composure the sentence of death which the Emperor had passed upon him. But Charles did not dare to carry out the sentence; he preferred to alter the punishment of death into imprisonment for life, with the stipulations that John Frederick should surrender his fortresses, and should give up to Maurice by the "Wittenberg Capitulation" the whole of his country with the Electoral dignity (1547). The third condition, that the fallen Elector should submit to the Trident Council, was rejected by John Frederick. Thus the Electoral title passed from the Ernestine to the Albertine line in Saxony.

Charles's Triumph.



IT now appeared expedient to chastise also the Landgrave of Hesse. Maurice, and Joachim of Brandenburg, who had also remained obedient to the Emperor, but had taken no part in the war, interceded on his behalf, and obtained the assurance "that if he would surrender unconditionally, sue for pardon, and deliver up his fortresses to the Emperor, he should suffer neither bodily punishment nor should perpetual imprisonment be inflicted on him." These conditions were still further mitigated by verbal negotiations with the Emperor, in which it was stipulated that the Landgrave, after his submission, "was not to be injured either with regard to his life or property; nor was he to be punished by confiscation of his lands or by imprisonment." With this assurance, which was guaranteed by Maurice and Joachim, Philip accepted the capitulation, and provided with "free, secure, honourable, and safe escort," he set out for Halle, where the Imperial camp was stationed. After imploring pardon on his knees in the solemn assembly, he presented himself at the castle, where he had been invited to the evening repast; thereupon he was detained, in spite of all his remonstrances, as a prisoner. The Emperor had ordered this step, contrary to Ferdinand's advice; he could not deny himself the triumph of having his two greatest opponents in his power. He replied to the astounded and startled Electors who besieged him next day with entreaties for the release of the Landgrave of Hesse, that he would abide by his original promise, "that he would not keep Philip in lifelong imprisonment." Filled with indignation, the deluded princes quitted the Court. Soon afterwards Charles set out for North Germany with his two prisoners, to regulate the affairs of the Church; while Ferdinand inflicted severe chastisement on his enemies in Bohemia and Lusatia, and the Imperial commanders occupied themselves in bringing the towns of Southern Saxony to subjection. But the strong walls of Bremen and the heroic courage of the Protestant citizens of North Germany opposed an insurmountable obstacle to the victorious course of the Emperor. In these places the Protestant cause maintained the upper hand; and though denounced for rebellion, Magdeburg became the stronghold of Protestantism.

Meanwhile the Council of Trent that had been opened in December, 1545, continued its deliberations. Though intended for Germany, it was composed almost exclusively of Spaniards and Italians, under the presidency of a papal legate. The tone of the assembly was hostile to the Protestants. The Vulgate edition was declared to be the only authentic version of the Bible. Tradition was pronounced equal in authority to Holy Writ. In the doctrine of justification the efficacy of good works was insisted on; the seven sacraments were maintained, and the hierarchical priesthood declared to be of sacred origin. The Emperor was dissatisfied at the progress of events in the council, and Pope Paul III., who divined Charles's intention of weakening the papacy, published the decrees of the council, against the Emperor's wish, and transferred the assembly to Bologna, under the pretext of a plague, withdrew his troops from the Imperial service, and entered into negotiations with France. A small number of prelates remained at Trent, in obedience to the Emperor's command, and continued their deliberations. Thus was the council divided against itself.



END OF THE REIGN OF CHARLES V.

SWITZERLAND AND THE REFORMATION.

CHARLES V. AND THE COUNCIL OF TRENT.—DIFFICULTIES.—THE AUGSBURG INTERIM.—LEAGUE OF PROTESTANT PRINCES.—ALBERT OF BRANDENBURG AND SCHÄRTLIN.—ALLIANCE WITH FRANCE.—INNSBRUCK AND PASSAU.—DEFECTION OF MAURICE OF SAXONY.—DANGER OF THE EMPEROR: HIS NARROW ESCAPE.—RELEASE OF THE ELECTOR JOHN FREDERICK.—BATTLE OF SIEVENHAUSEN.—DEATH OF MAURICE OF SAXONY.—TRANQUILLITY RESTORED IN GERMANY.—THE RELIGIOUS PEACE OF AUGSBURG.—CHARLES V. AT ST. JUSTE: HIS LAST DAYS AND DEATH, 1558.—THE LOSS OF THE IMPERIAL DOMINIONS IN LORRAINE.—THE BISHOPRICS OF TOUL, METZ, AND VERDUN.—THE CONSTABLE DE MONTMORENCY.—TRIUMPH OF FRENCH INTERVENTION.—THE REFORMATION IN SWITZERLAND: CALVIN AT GENEVA.



MAURICE OF SAXONY.

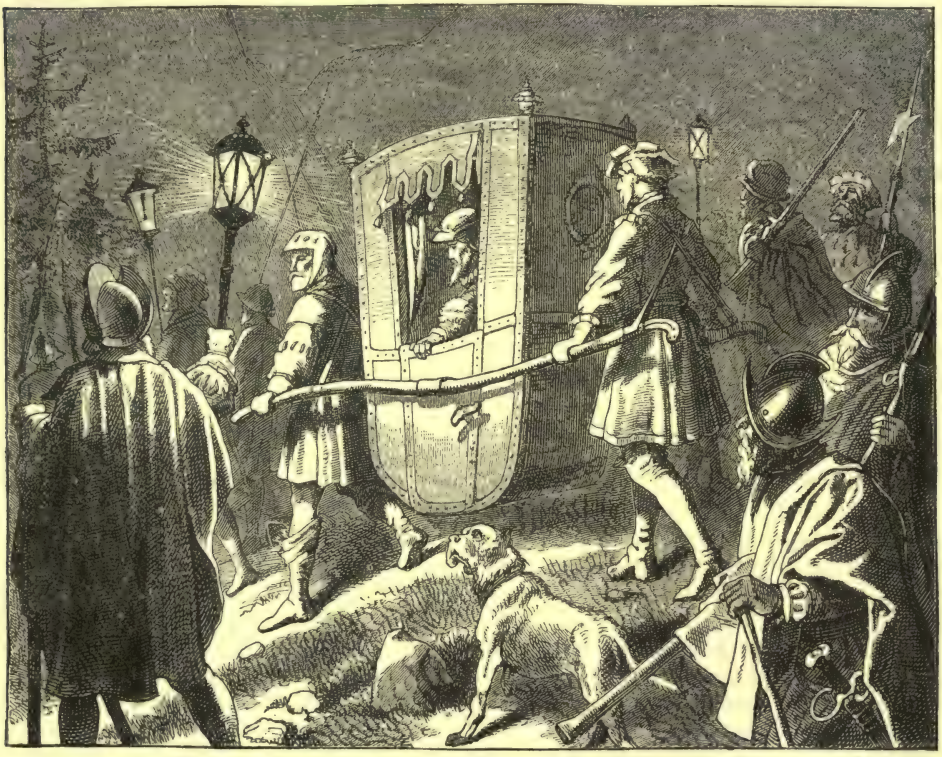
IN this state of affairs the news of the Emperor's complete victory in Germany was extremely unpalatable to the Pope. Political points of dispute had become mixed up with ecclesiastical affairs, and made the breach still wider. Charles now summoned a brilliant diet to meet at Augsburg in February, 1548. Here he obtained from the Protestant princes a promise that they would submit to the council, if it were removed back to Trent, and the points that had been already decided were offered to fresh consideration. But as neither the Pope nor the theologians who met together at Bologna

could be brought to acquiesce in this view, the Emperor, who was now at the height of his power, and found the German princes awaiting his commands with the greatest respect and humility, formed the resolution to undertake, of his own sovereign might, a reformation of the German Church, and to cause an order to be issued as to the regulation of religious affairs until the decision of the council. This was accomplished by the Augsburg Interim, published in May, 1548; in the drawing up of which document Julius Pflug, a moderate Catholic, and Agricola, a Protestant theologian of Brandenburg, had the chief part.

At the moment when Pope Julius III., who was subservient to the Emperor, had removed the council once more to Trent, in September, 1551, and when the fact that it was attended both by the Catholic and Evangelical representatives appeared to favour the accomplishment of Charles's long-cherished wishes—when all classes had united to elevate him as the temporal lord of Christendom in the mediæval sense, and he was already conceiving the idea of causing his son to be chosen as his successor, and thus making the renewed Imperial power hereditary in his family—then it was that he found an unexpected opponent in the man to whom he chiefly owed his previous victories and triumphs, Maurice of Saxony. The Emperor's plans threatened to bring about a transformation in the rule of the German empire, which would be prejudicial to the princely power; the continual presence of Spanish and Italian troops in South Germany was an oppressive burden to the country; the heavy punishment with which every transgression of the Catholic rites was visited promoted ill-feeling; and it appeared as though Germany were about to be transformed into a Spanish province.

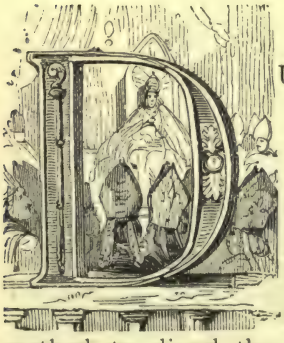
The discontent and anger reached their highest point when Maurice, the hated betrayer of the Protestant cause and its leaders, undertook in the name of the Emperor to put into execution the sentence decreed against Magdeburg (Oct., 1550), and began to besiege the town "where alone the pure word of the gospel had found refuge." This indignation against Maurice was only equalled by the exultation with which the news was heard of the heroic deeds of the Magdeburg citizens, who, in confident reliance on the assistance of God, for whose cause they were fighting, and strong in the oath they had taken to stand by one another in life or death, fearlessly repelled every attack and assault. In Saxony great excitement prevailed, and the representatives of the people already turned their eyes towards Maurice's brother Augustus. Then at last the eyes of the gallant young prince were opened as to his own position. His repeated intercession for the liberation of his father-in-law Philip, who had been detained a prisoner at Mechlin, had hitherto remained unsuccessful; in fact, after a fruitless attempt at flight, the prisoner was kept in still closer confinement, and the pledged word of the Elector, that he should be free, appeared to have little weight with the Emperor. Maurice's honour was sullied for ever, if he could not once more establish it by a decided deed; and how was it possible for him to win over public opinion, to which no prominent man is indifferent, more satisfactorily than by restoring to the nation with one blow the liberty of the empire and of the Church? With this object he allied himself first with his zealous confederate of Magdeburg, the enterprising Margrave John of Cüstrin, with whom he had till then often been at enmity. This prince worked hard to effect a reconciliation between the two Saxon houses, and the arrangement of the dispute with Magdeburg. Soon the Duke of Mecklenburg, the sons of the Landgrave of Hesse, and others joined the league, and the chivalrous Margrave Albert of

Brandenburg-Culmbach followed the same course. It was the Elector of Brandenburg also who, supported by the proscribed Schärtlin, first effected an alliance with France. In the treaty which Maurice then concluded with King Henry II., the French king was permitted, in return for assistance rendered to the Protestant princes, to occupy the towns of Metz, Toul, Verdun, and Cambray, with the reservation, however, of the privileges of the empire.



CHARLES V. ESCAPING ACROSS THE MOUNTAINS.

Innsbruck and Passau.



URING these transactions Maurice was apparently prosecuting the siege of Magdeburg. But immediately upon the conclusion of the treaty with France, he offered the town pardon and religious freedom, and thus brought it to render him homage and to recognise his power (November, 1551). The Emperor remained without troops at Innsbruck, engaged with the affairs of the Council of Trent and his own schemes. Warnings reached him in vain; Maurice, who was cunning and secret, and a master of dissimulation, found a method to dispel the Emperor's suspicions. He concealed his deep-laid schemes under an appearance of geniality; and his jovial banquets, his love of hunting, and his adventures of gallantry often served him as a veil, and often

as a means for diving without suspicion into the plans of others. Charles, who was accustomed to Spanish and Italian intrigue, thought himself perfectly safe, and that it was impossible he could be over-reached by a German. Suddenly three armies, under Maurice, Albert, and William of Hesse, son of the Landgrave, marched southwards, occupied Augsburg, April, 1552, where the old popular constitution of the guilds and the religious peace were again restored, and defeating the Emperor's scattered garrisons, penetrated into the Tyrol; while the French troops conquered Metz and advanced through Lorraine to Alsace and the Upper Rhine. Maurice had already stormed the narrow pass of Ehrenberg and approached Innsbruck to capture the Emperor, who was in the greatest distress, when a mutiny among the German troops afforded him an opportunity for escape. The council had already separated in great confusion.—Charles set at liberty the imprisoned Elector John Frederick, and then, ill and exhausted with sleeplessness and nocturnal vigils, escaped across the snow-covered Tyrolean Alps, through the Puster Valley, to Villach, in Carinthia. The difficult task of establishing peace was now entrusted to his brother Ferdinand, who did not share the Emperor's views and interests, and was more favourably inclined towards the Germans. After arranging an armed truce, he met the six electors, and the dukes of Pomerania Würtemberg, Bavaria, Braunschweig, and others, in a deliberative council, from which resulted the treaty of Passau, August, 1552.

The Death of Maurice.



THE Emperor, still intent on the re-establishment of religious unity, rejected the article of the unconditional peace; but the Franco-Turkish war, which had broken out with renewed violence, withdrew his attention from German affairs. While the Imperial troops were vainly besieging the town of Metz, which was occupied by the French and bravely defended by the Duke of Guise; while Maurice and Ferdinand were attacking the Turks in Hungary, and a Franco-Turkish fleet was threatening Naples, Margrave Albert of Brandenburg, who had not been a party to the treaty of Passau, commenced a predatory war against the Bishops of Bamberg and Würzburg, and endeavoured to defray his war expenses by the plunder and destruction of monasteries and religious foundations. As the Emperor looked on with seeming indifference at these depredations, and gave Albert impunity, because he intended to make use of him against the French and occasionally against the German princes, Maurice allied himself with Ferdinand, Henry of

Braunschweig (who, after the battle of Mühlberg, had regained his liberty and his dominions), and the spiritual princes, who were at enmity with the Margrave, for the preservation of the peace of the country, and secretly renewed his treaty with France. To prevent the coalition of the enemy's forces, Albert, who was a bold, enterprising warrior, now attacked Henry of Braunschweig, and committed savage devastations in Lower Saxony. Maurice then advanced to encounter him; and near the village of Sievenhausen, on the spot where three centuries later a memorial was erected, a bloody battle was fought on the 9th of July, 1553. Maurice gained the victory, but received a gunshot wound in the *mêlée*, from the effects of which he died two days afterwards, in the flower of his manhood and strength. He was a man of rare qualities, "thoughtful and secret, enterprising and energetic, with an intelligent insight into the future, and excellent in the carrying out of a scheme." With the death-wound in his breast, he still devoted himself to the military and political affairs of Germany. The



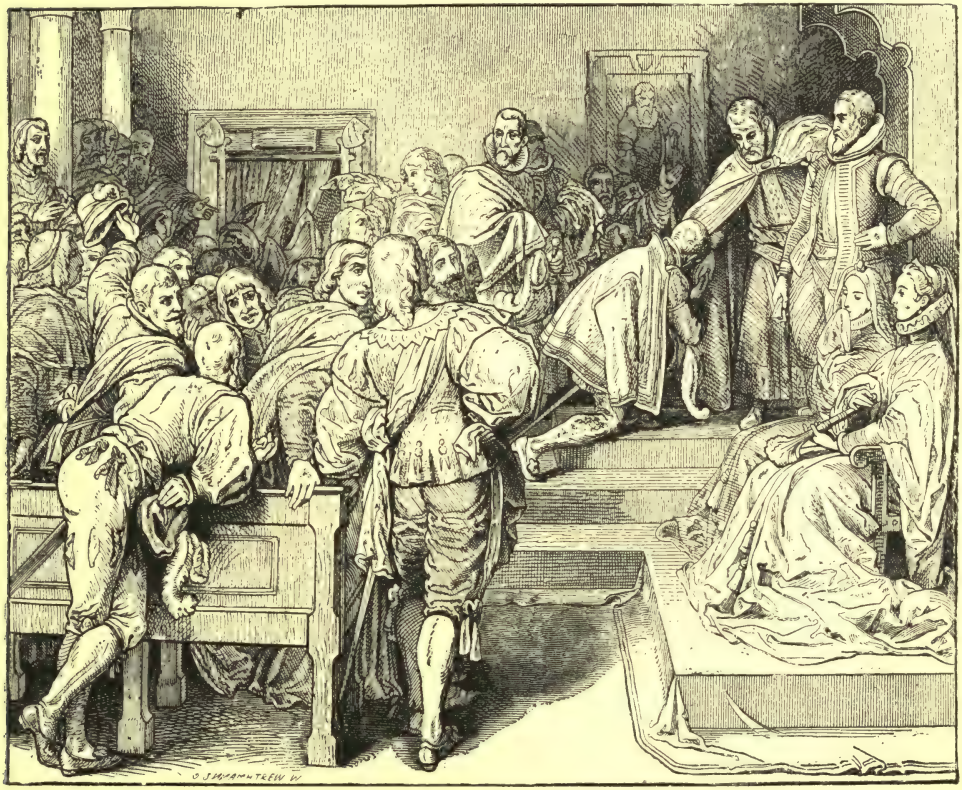
CHRIST AND ANTICHRIST. BY LUCAS CRANACH.

manliness of his character made him at last the hero of the Protestant people. His fall gave new hope to the Margrave, who after a time renewed his attack on Braunschweig; but defeated for the second time, and laid under the ban, as a disturber of the peace, by the Imperial chamber and also by the Emperor, he was compelled to abandon his dominions, Bayreuth and Hof, to his enemies, and to seek protection as a fugitive in France. Gradually peace returned to the German states.

After the lapse of two years, Albert came back once again to Germany, but found an early grave, in 1557, in the castle of Pforzheim, where his brother-in-law, the Margrave of Baden, had granted him protection.

The Religious Peace of Augsburg, and the Last Days of Charles V.

BY bitter experience the followers of both the Confessions had come to the conclusion that the peace of the empire could only be secured by mutual recognition of freedom of belief. This recognition completely destroyed Charles's plans and schemes with regard to the Church and the Imperial power. It was no wonder, therefore, that he felt disgusted with the affairs of Germany, and made over to his brother the presidency of the diet



ABDICATION OF THE EMPEROR CHARLES V.

that had been appointed in the treaty of Passau to take place, that he might not experience the humiliation of having publicly to give up the cherished aim of his life. At this memorable diet, which was held at Augsburg, in September, 1555, a religious peace was at last agreed upon, after long and animated deliberations; a peace by which the Protestant party was not only permitted perfect freedom of conscience and religion, but also political equality with the Catholics; and the continued possession of Church property that had already been declared confiscated. The most violent dispute was excited by the demand of the old, or Catholic, party that those ecclesiastical representatives who should in the future join the New Church should forfeit

their office and revenues. As an agreement could not be arrived at on this point, the so-called "ecclesiastical proviso" was drawn up as an Imperial declaration, and proclaimed as the law of the empire, though at the same time the protest put forward by the Protestant representatives was admitted against it. Thus the whole question with regard to ecclesiastical property remained undecided, as the seed of future conflict and bloodshed. The treaty of Augsburg was thus by no means a final settlement of the German religious question, but only a compromise for the moment, brought about by the exhaustion of both parties, and the common aspiration for tranquillity and rest.

The Emperor, who saw that the aim of his life, the securing of uniformity for the Western Church, was destroyed by the religious peace, lost all the interest he had till then taken in mundane affairs; and, bowed down by bodily afflictions, he formed the resolution of abdicating his rule and withdrawing from the world, to spend the remainder of his days in the retirement of the cloister. With this object he made over to his son Philip, at a solemn assembly at Brussels, in October, 1555, first the government of the Netherlands, and some time afterwards, in 1556, the kingdoms of Spain and Naples, as well as his possessions in the New World; the Austrian states, however, and the control of German affairs were left in the hands of his brother Ferdinand. After having divested himself also of the Imperial crown, on the 7th September, 1556, he set out for the west of Spain, where close to the monastery of San Juste, near Placenzia, he caused a dwelling to be erected for himself on the pleasant slope of one of the wooded hills. Here for two years he lived in peaceful retirement, passing his time in mechanical pursuits, religious exercises, and pious meditations; but continuing, notwithstanding his retirement, to watch the affairs of the empire, and retaining in some degree his influence on the government of the country. Popular tradition has recorded as a fact, that in order to accustom himself to the thought of death, he celebrated his own obsequies, shortly before his death, by solemnly holding the funeral service for the dead.

Ferdinand I., who had been already chosen emperor by the German princes, now united the Imperial crown with the Austrian hereditary dominions, after having pledged himself to uphold the religious peace, to maintain the peace of the country according to the renewed judicial regulation, and never to govern without the advice and consent of the deputies of the empire. This oath Ferdinand conscientiously regarded. He, and his benevolent son and successor, Maximilian II., opposed no hindrance to the spread of Evangelical doctrines.



The Loss of the Imperial Dominions in Lorraine.



THE Smalkaldic war had not only destroyed the hopes of the patriots for the establishment of a German National Church, based on Evangelica principles, and independent of Rome; it had also sacrificed German territory to the covetous neighbour of the empire. The ducal family governing Lorraine had for the last century shown more sympathy for France than for the distracted German Empire; on the other hand, the three bishops of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, whose possessions lay in the dukedom of Lorraine, were considered as princes of the German Empire, obtained their investiture from the Emperor, and belonged to the metropolitan union of Treves. The three cities were free Imperial cities, and stood under the supremacy of the Emperor only; and in legal affairs recognised the Imperial chamber at Spires as the highest judicial tribunal. At Metz, in 1356, the diet was held at which the fundamental Imperial law of Germany, the Golden Bull, was established. The citizens, German in language, customs, and habits of thought, remained at all times faithful to the German nation. When Maurice of Saxony reluctantly accepted the proposed offensive and defensive alliance, in order to save the independence of Germany and the very existence of Protestantism from the Imperial Catholic policy of Charles V., he did not contemplate surrendering these western towns of the empire to the French. The long wars between France and Hapsburg, the apprehension of the French court at the growing supremacy of the Spanish-Austrian ruling house, might well lead the German princes to believe that Henry II. had no other aim than to oppose this increasing power, to maintain the independence of Germany, and to protect the Protestant princes in their religious freedom; for such was the plausible tenour of the hypocritical treaty. Maurice might have been of opinion that the general interest of the nation against the common enemy was a sufficient basis for a political alliance. Though on this occasion the three ecclesiastical lords might forfeit their temporal supremacy, and pay for the expenses of the war with a part of their possessions, such a secularization would probably not appear a great misfortune to the evangelical Electors. The proceedings of the French king towards his own reformed subjects might certainly have convinced him that Henry II. of Valois would be an unreliable protector of the "evangelical liberty" of the German people; but such a policy was nevertheless practicable, and was at different times unhesitatingly pursued by France.

Thus the alliance was brought about, against the advice of Melancthon, who protested against it, and against the representations of the Saxon party, as the prophets of Judah had declaimed against the alliance of their people with Egypt. A manifesto which was issued in the German language by the French Government from Fontainebleau, proclaimed to the world "that all

kinds of grave complaints from many princes and other persons of importance of the German communities had been made to the King of France, in which it had been set forth that they suffered unendurable bondage and tyranny from the Emperor, and were brought down to slavery and ruin; this could not occur without injury to the crown of France, as the German nation was a strong fortress of the whole of Christendom. For this reason he had not considered it right to deny his help to the German princes and parties; but, on the contrary, impelled by a Divine prompting, had established a league with them, and had formed the strong resolution of placing at their disposal himself, his influence, and his friends. At the same time he had no other aim than of his free royal pleasure to promote the liberty of the German nation and of the sacred kingdom, to liberate the princes from the pitiful subjection in which they were held, to release Duke John Frederick of Saxony and the Landgrave Philip of Hesse from their lengthy imprisonment, and by this means to obtain, like Flamininus in Greece, an immortal name. There was no cause to fear any violence, as the king merely undertook the war to give back to each one his lost honours, possessions, and liberties."

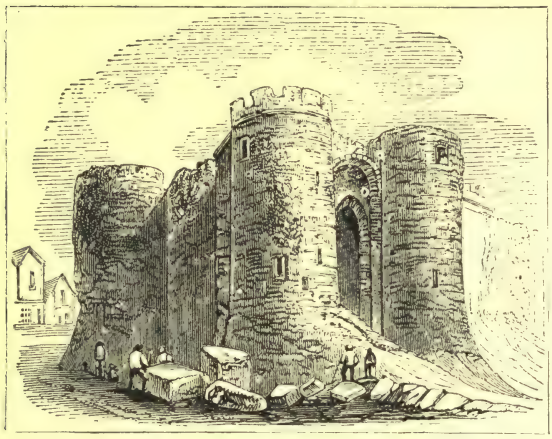


ELECTOR JOHN FREDERICK OF SAXONY.

This solemn declaration of the king —who, to show that he sought no personal advantage or profit, even designated himself in the title of the manifesto as the "protector of German liberty, and of the imprisoned princes" —was intended to deceive the Elector Moritz and the other allies, and to give them a false impression of security. Soon afterwards the king prepared for a temporary occupation of the towns of Metz, Toul, and Verdun.



THE CONSTABLE DE MONTMORENCY.—TRIUMPH OF THE FRENCH INTERVENTION.



AT the same time that Maurice took the field against the Emperor, the Constable de Montmorency, with a considerable army of cavalry and infantry, marched into Lorraine, subjugated Toul, Verdun, and Nancy, deprived the Duchess Christina of Denmark, a niece of the Emperor, of the regency which she had carried on for her youthful son Charles since the death of her husband, Duke Francis, in 1545, and entrusted the government to the Count of Vaudemont, a devoted servant of France. The young prince, who was sent to Paris to complete his education, was afterwards married to the king's daughter, Marguerite; and thus was the way paved for ultimate annexation. The Emperor Charles, for his part, offered no assistance to the threatened country; and a refutation of the French manifesto was all he undertook for the protection of Lorraine. Henry's plan, nevertheless, would be imperfectly carried out unless he also gained possession of Metz, the inhabitants of which city still remained faithful to the empire. But the French king found ways and means to attain his aim by deception and trickery; and France obtained, as she did a century later in her intrigues to gain possession of Strasburg, a willing instrument in the Bishop of Metz, a cardinal and dignitary of the Church. For the Roman Catholic clergy at all times felt more prosperous and secure under the protection of the "most Christian king," than under the feeble supremacy of the diets of the empire, where Protestant princes and deputies sat and voted with the rest. Relying on the efforts of Bishop Robert, who endeavoured to create a French party in the town, the Constable de Montmorency requested that his army might pass through Metz. This proposition was resolutely opposed by the citizens; but the intriguing arts of the French partizans at last induced them to consent that the general himself should pass through their city, followed by a troop of the guards and by the cavaliers of his staff, but not by the army. This partial permission was all that Montmorency required. The one company of soldiers was followed by the guard, and after these came trooping the whole army. When the citizens remonstrated, the Constable pretended to be indignant at the intrusion of the crowd, but declared that the city would suffer no harm if the whole army "passed through" it. But so soon as the last man had entered the gates, the troops were quartered on the citizens and nothing more was said concerning the promise of a withdrawal. The farce had been well organized and performed, but it was to terminate with a tragedy. In order to convert the magistracy into a suitable instrument of French policy, Montmorency invited those members who were not of his party, into his room, and stabbed with his own hand the chief of the council of bailiffs, while his guards fell upon the others

and cut them down. After this no further resistance was possible. When the king marched into Metz, on the 18th of April, 1552, he was proclaimed the "Protector of the holy Roman empire," and replied to the petition of the magistrates that the city might be maintained in the enjoyment of its liberties and privileges, with the evasive answer: "I will treat you as I treat my own subjects."

This success in Lorraine inspired Henry II. with the hope of winning Strasburg also, and of establishing a league with the electoral princes of the Rhine under the protectorship of France. But the time for such a measure



GEORGE OF FRUNDSBERG AND GERMAN LANDSKNECHTE.

had not arrived. When the people of Strasburg showed signs of resisting the further advance of this upholder of German liberties by force of arms, and the Rhenish electors and other princes of the country rejected the proposed alliance in the most decided fashion, at an assembly at Worms, the king desisted from his attempts, and contented himself with marching through Strasburg with a small retinue, and receiving the ceremonious hospitality of the council. The conclusion of the treaty of Passau warned him to be moderate. He declared to the ambassadors of the Diet of Worms, "that inasmuch as, through his efforts, the empire had regained its liberty, he regarded

his work as concluded, and should take his army back to Lorraine." Nevertheless, on the return journey Luxemburg was devastated by fire and sword, and thus this border-land was from the first involved in the sorrows and sufferings of the German empire. The three bishoprics, however, whose temporary occupation had been permitted to the king in the treaty with Maurice, were not evacuated; on the contrary, the towns of Metz, Toul, and Verdun were incorporated with the French kingdom; and thus a valuable and extensive territory, containing a population of 300,000 souls, mostly Germans, was estranged from the empire. Henry regarded the city of Metz as necessary for the safe keeping of the bishoprics of Lorraine, and the dukedoms of Bar and Champagne, and even as the key to France itself; as it had, till then, been the key to Germany. He therefore established as governor a man who would not lightly allow the place to be torn from him—Duke Francis of Guise. This energetic commander repaired the fortifications, placed a strong garrison in the town, and made all preparations for a protracted defence. It was not uncalled for. For when the French king refused to withdraw from the temporary occupation he had been allowed to carry out as Vicar of the empire, an Imperial army was despatched against the town. But the Emperor's advance was slow, and it was not till the end of October, 1552, that the siege of Metz was commenced, under the direction of the Duke of Alva. The severe cold of the winter proved disastrous to the Imperial troops; thousands were frozen to death or fell victims to epidemic diseases. At last the order was given to break up the camp and march towards Thionville, after the army had dwindled away to one-half its former strength; and those who remained were half frozen and famished. Margrave Albrecht conducted this disastrous retreat, of January, 1553, which was soon transformed into a complete rout. The roads were strewn with dead and dying men and horses, with weapons and deserted baggage wagons. Prisoners and booty were carried into the town, the fate of which was decided by this termination to the siege. The bishop-cardinal assumed the control of spiritual and temporal affairs, established a new council, and strenuously encouraged the alliance with France.

With the liberty of the empire the germs of Protestantism were also destroyed in Metz; all heretical books were hunted out and burnt. The clergy and nobility rejoiced, but the citizens long mourned their lost liberty and civil government. The rights of the empire had certainly been reserved in the capitulation, and for a century had a legal existence; the towns and bishops were still regarded as belonging to the empire; imperial investiture still prevailed in theory, and representatives were occasionally sent to the diet of the empire; but it was only a fiction that had no more signification than the supreme rights still arrogated by the empire over the dukedom of Lorraine.



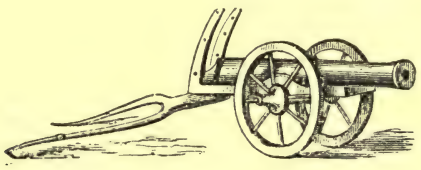
MARTYRDOM OF SAVONAROLA.

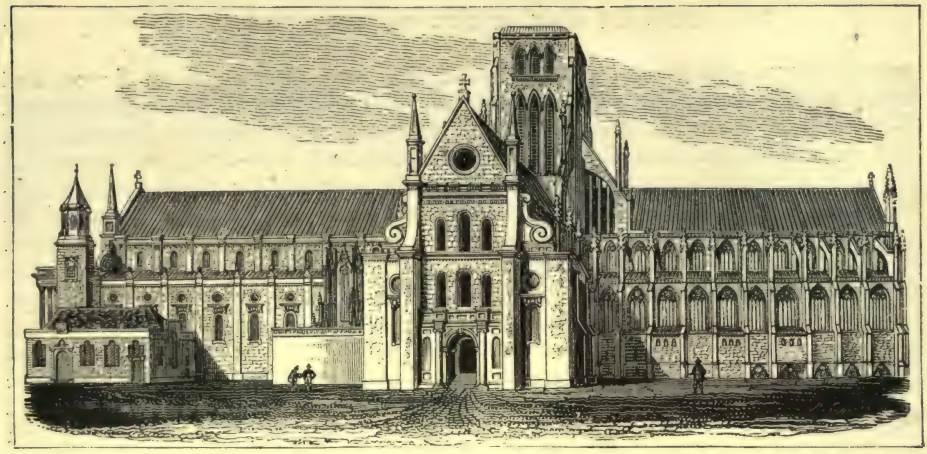
THE REFORMED CHURCH IN SWITZERLAND.—CALVIN IN GENEVA.



THE new faith had penetrated even to the Italian part of Switzerland. William Farel, of Dauphiné, an ardent believer in the evangelical teaching, and the eloquent Viret, were the first dauntless preachers of the gospel, who, with the courage of the old apostles of the heathen, attacked superstition and self-righteousness, and by their bold speaking endeavoured both in the field and in the market-place, in the pulpit and the churchyards, to win over the people to the new faith. Waadt, which had been conquered by Berne from Savoy, accepted the religion of the new ruler; and in Aigle, Murten, Neuchatel, and other places, Farel's eloquence proved successful. Geneva, where the bishops, who were appointed by the dukes of Savoy, had long

proved themselves the enemies of civil liberty, was liberated from Savoy, and brought to give in its adhesion to the reformation and the confederacy. Nevertheless the constitution was ill established, the people were degenerating, and manners were licentious, when John Calvin (1509–1564), of Noyon, in Picardy, who had given up the study of jurisprudence for theology, had suffered persecution, and had been compelled to take flight on account of his reforming views, established himself at Geneva, and became the orderer of the republican commonwealth, the reformer of morals, and the true founder of the Church. His severe church discipline at first excited suspicion and jealousy, and led to his expulsion ; but better counsels soon prevailed. He was recalled, and from that time until his death, like the lawgivers of antiquity, he exercised the most powerful influence on the constitution, religion, morals, and culture of the city, which owes to him alone its importance and advantages. Geneva became through him as remarkable a centre of reforming energy in the south as Wittenberg in the north. In the Geneva school, where Calvin's faithful comrade in office, Theodore Beza (1519–1605), a highly-gifted French nobleman, developed his varied activity, were educated, formed, and sent forth those zealous preachers who, in constant peril of their lives, carried the gospel on to foreign lands. Genevese printing presses furnished the principal reformed churches with religious writings. Many ecclesiastics and scholars of all nationalities who were persecuted for their belief, found in Geneva shelter and protection, and contributed to the advance of civilization as well as to the importance of the republic. Calvin himself, by his writings, his extensive correspondence, his advice and good judgment, attained to a position of worth and a legislative authority like that of Luther and Melancthon. He was a man of limited imagination but of elevated understanding, and of inflexible severity both in thought and action. Hard towards others as towards himself, yet not without deep feeling,—hostile to every earthly pleasure, and careless of popular favour, he governed minds by the veneration inspired by his strong, pure will. The teaching of Calvin, as he has set it forth in his "Exposition of the Christian Religion," bears the character of its author—severity and simplicity. In his article of faith he for the most part agrees with Zwingli ; yet, as regards the Lord's Supper, he occupies an intermediate position between him and Luther, and in the doctrine of election follows the sternest Augustine theory, which holds that the human will is fettered in consequence of original sin, and incapable of good of its own strength ; that while one portion of mankind is fated by the Divine decree of predestination to partake of future happiness, the other portion is irrevocably destined to suffer eternal misery ; so that the salvation of the elect, even though they err and fall, cannot be forfeited, while the lost are hopelessly excluded from heavenly bliss.





OLD ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL, LONDON.

ENGLAND IN THE TUDOR TIMES.

THE ANGLICAN AND THE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCHES.

HENRY VIII. AND CATHERINE OF ARRAGON.—CARDINAL WOLSEY.—SUPPRESSION OF THE MONASTERIES.—SEPARATION FROM ROME.—EDWARD VI., 1547-1553.—THE ANGLICAN CHURCH.—LADY JANE GREY.—REIGN OF MARY, 1553-1558.—THE ROMISH CHURCH RESTORED.—PERSECUTIONS.—ACCESSION OF ELIZABETH, 1558.—SETTLEMENT OF CHURCH AFFAIRS.—ACT OF UNIFORMITY, 1559.—AFFAIRS OF SCOTLAND.—JAMES V.: HIS DEATH, IN 1542.—MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.—THE REFORMATION IN SCOTLAND.—WISHART AND CARDINAL BEATOUN.—MARY OF GUISE.—JOHN KNOX.—ESTABLISHMENT OF CALVINISM IN SCOTLAND.—THE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

HENRY VIII. AND THE REFORMATION.



HENRY VIII. (1509-47), a prince who was well versed in scholastic knowledge, at first attacked Luther's views in a controversial essay on the seven sacraments, and punished the Reformer's followers with imprisonment and the scaffold. But his devotion to the Roman see, which, as a reward for his zeal, conferred on him the title of Defender of the Faith, was changed to hatred when Clement VII., out of regard for the Emperor Charles V., would not concede to the king's desire for a divorce from his Spanish wife, Catherine of Arragon, though he had formerly flattered him with the hope that his request would be granted. Partly, perhaps, from scruples of conscience as to the validity of his marriage with Catherine, who had been the wife of his deceased brother Arthur, and partly the desire of espousing

the beautiful Anne Boleyn, at last made Henry decide to render a divorce from Catherine practicable, by separating himself from Rome. Relying on a number of judgments given by native and foreign universities, and by the decisions of learned bodies as to the illegality of his marriage, he caused himself to be arbitrarily divorced by Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, after he had been already privately married to Anne Boleyn, in 1532. He also compelled the clergy to recognise him as the head of the English Church, and insisted that the servile parliament should accept a number of resolutions, by which the Pope's authority in England was abolished, any further payment of money to Rome was forbidden, and any appeal to the ecclesiastical court was rendered a penal offence. The haughty and ambitious Cardinal Wolsey, who had, until then, exercised unlimited influence over the king, fell into disgrace, and at last died broken-hearted, because he had given feeble support to the divorce; and Thomas Cromwell, an obsequious servant of a despotic master, attained the dignity of a vicar-general, and keeper of the seals, and, in conjunction with Cranmer, instituted Church reforms according to Henry's pleasure.



The numerous monasteries were arbitrarily dissolved, and their rich possessions were forfeited to the crown, the monks and nuns being barely kept from starvation; and the treasures of ancient art and knowledge were attacked with a rude vandalism. Becket's grave was desecrated and pillaged; the memory of the old saint was ridiculed by an absurd mock ceremonial. In flames which were kindled with the wooden images of saints, both Papists and Lutherans were consumed; the former incurred the anger of the despotic king because, like the venerable Bishop Fisher, and like Sir Thomas More, the chancellor, who was imbued with classic learning and Hellenic wit, they objected to his arbitrary proceedings towards the Pope and the Church; the latter excited the anger of the scholastic theologian, who still asserted the doctrines which he had maintained against Luther from the first. Accordingly, he not only maintained all the dogmas, customs, ceremonies, and hierarchical arrangements of the old Church, but qualified and narrowed the permission he had once accorded, rendering lawful the use of the English Bible, the translation of the fugitive Tyndal; and by the law of the Six Articles, designated by a harsher name by the people, he commanded, on pain of death, the maintenance and observance of priestly celibacy, auricular confession, monastic vows, silent masses, transubstantiation, and the withholding of the cup from the laity.

While Henry VIII. played a despotic game with the religious consciousness of the people, he also acted in a similar manner with regard to the lives and liberties of his nobles, and the heads of his wives. When the execution of Fisher and More, and the bloody persecution of the Carthusians and other



MEDIÆVAL FANATICISM : IMAGE BREAKING.

supporters of the Pope excited the anger of the Court of Rome, and an indignant sentence of excommunication was issued against the king and his adherents, and was proclaimed by the English Cardinal, Reginald Pole, a connection of the royal family, Henry caused the aged Countes of Salis-

bury, the mother of the cardinal, one of the last descendants of the glorious Plantagenets, to be put to death, with many of Pole's other relatives and friends; and when the discontent produced by the dissolution of the monasteries in the north of the country led to a rebellion, in which the monks marched with the malcontents in what was called the "pilgrimage of grace," both abbots and friars were handed over to the executioner, and put to death in the clerical garb of their order. The despotic temper of the king was shown most openly in his treatment of his wives. Soon after the decease of the divorced Catherine,—whose end was hastened, if not caused, by grief at the wrongs she had endured, and who expired in the Priory at Kimbolton, where, far from the court, she led a life of severe penance,—her rival, Ann Boleyn, was beheaded in the Tower, on the 19th of May, 1536, at the command of her husband, whose jealousy had been excited by wicked slanders, and whose fancy was now enthralled by a new object. His third wife, the young and gentle Jane Seymour, died in 1537, a few days after the birth of her son Edward, a weakly and delicate child. Henry was afterwards induced by the persuasion of his minister, Cromwell, and by the charms depicted in a portrait by the painter Holbein, to offer his hand, in 1540, to Anne of Cleves, the daughter of a German prince. But neither her face nor her manners pleased the peremptory king. A very insignificant pretext was made the excuse for another separation, which resulted in Cromwell's disgrace and execution. Catherine Howard, Henry's fifth wife, continued to bestow marks of favour and affection upon a former lover, and paid the penalty for her imprudence on the scaffold, in 1542; and it was only owing to the great prudence of his last queen, Catherine Parr, that she also did not become a sacrifice to her zeal for the Reformation. Since the days of Nero and Domitian no monarch had appeared who was so dominated by the impulses of a despotic nature, a bloodthirsty temper, and a tyrannical will. Even on his death-bed he gave the order for the execution of the Catholic Duke of Norfolk and his high-minded, chivalrous son, the Earl of Surrey. Like the grim tyrant in Uhland's ballad: "What he spoke was scourging, and what he wrote was blood."



SIR THOMAS MORE.

EDWARD VI., 1547–1553.



EDWARD VI.

AT his father's death, the young king was only ten years of age; therefore a regency had been appointed by Henry for the conduct of the government, in which Edward's maternal uncle, the Duke of Somerset, and Archbishop Cranmer obtained the chief influence. The former, who was declared Protector of England, gradually concentrated the whole power in his own hands, and promoted the reform of the Church, which was undertaken with care and moderation by his friend and adviser Cranmer the Archbishop.

By a decision of parliament, the so-called Bloody Statute of the Six Articles was abolished, but the king, as head of the Church, was declared possessed of the right to choose and appoint bishops. The people were instructed in religious matters by means of the Catechism, formed on the Lutheran model; and the Book of Common Prayer was drawn up under the Archbishop's direction, and was ratified by parliament. The mass and the celibacy of the priesthood were abolished; and the Declaration of Faith embodied in the Thirty-nine (at first forty-two) Articles, placed the Anglican Church in the category of Protestant communities. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, a cunning prelate, who was indignant that he had been excluded from participation in the government, and Bonner, Bishop of London, a coarse, vindictive bigot, disputed the right of the regency to undertake reforms during the minority of the king; for this they were deprived of their offices, and put in prison.

MARY I.



SOMERSET'S love of power and harsh character drew on him the enmity of the other members of the regency; and through his endeavours to relieve the country people, who were oppressed by the new possessors of what had formerly been convent property, he incurred the hatred of the nobility. A powerful faction was organized against him, and, by intrigues and conspiracies, brought about first his overthrow and ultimately his impeachment and execution in 1552. He was succeeded by the head of the opposite party, the ambitious Dudley, Earl of Warwick, who, as Duke of Northumberland, ruled the weak sovereign and the kingdom as absolutely



LONDON: THE STEELYARD, DEPÔT OF THE HANSEATIC MERCHANTS.



LADY JANE GREY.

as his predecessor Somerset had done. To increase his influence, and prolong his term of power, he persuaded Edward, whose end was approaching, to alter the testamentary dispositions of his father, by which the crown would pass to his sister Mary, and to appoint as his successor Jane Grey, a great niece of Henry VIII. through his sister Mary, who had married Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. Lady Jane was a Protestant, and was married to Lord Guilford Dudley, a son of the Duke of Northumberland. But partly hatred of the ambitious Northumberland, partly an inherited veneration for the line of succession, and for the principle of hereditary right, operated

in favour of Mary, and prevented the proclamation of Jane as queen from finding acceptance with the people. Queen Mary, on her part, issued a solemn assurance that no one should be interfered with or injured for the sake of matters of faith; she thus quickly won over the people to her side and obtained the throne. The Duke of Northumberland, after a vain endeavour to uphold the cause of his daughter-in-law, whose nominal reign lasted only ten days, was arrested as a traitor, and expiated his rash enterprise on the scaffold. Lord Guilford Dudley, and the noble and cultivated Jane Grey, who was as well versed in the writings of Plato as in the Bible, languished for a time in prison, and ultimately, after the rebellion of Wyatt, they shared the same fate. Lady Jane Grey was only seventeen years of age when she mounted the scaffold in 1554. Her zeal for her religion had inspired her with a strength before which death lost its terrors; but it had also impressed on her heart a deep resentment towards the ancient Church.



MARY I. OF ENGLAND.

Mary did not remain faithful to her original promise, that toleration should be extended to the Protestants. Educated in the strictest tenets of the faith of the Catholic Church, for which her mother Catherine had suffered, she was animated with the desire of re-establishing its supremacy. She induced parliament to abolish the regulations for church government which had been introduced in her brother's reign, deprived Cranmer and the opposing bishops of their dignities, and caused the zealous reformers Ridley and Latimer to be burnt to death at Oxford. Cardinal Pole, the learned champion of the papal primate, and the deadly enemy of her father, was appointed to the archbishopric of Canterbury, and, conjointly with Gardiner and Bonner, wrought zealously for the restoration of the papal power and the extermination of heresy.

When Mary gave her hand to the stern and fanatical Philip of Spain, in 1554, the persecution increased. In consequence of this union, England was immediately drawn into participation in Philip's war with France, and the important fortress of Calais, the last relic of the glorious conquests of the fifteenth century, was lost. This disaster, combined with grief at her husband's evident aversion, and aggravated by melancholy and misanthropy,

partly caused by the consciousness of her own unpopularity, shortened Mary's days. After having for some time indulged herself with the vain hope of giving a Catholic heir to the English nation, she died in November, 1558. Her sister Elizabeth, the object of her jealousy and hatred, the daughter of the unfortunate Anne Boleyn, then exchanged her former abode in a country house, where, under the guardianship of a Catholic gentleman, she had been detained in a kind of honourable custody, after her release from the Tower,



TRIUMPHANT ENTRY OF THE CATHOLIC BISHOPS INTO LONDON, UNDER MARY I.

for the royal palace. She could not permit the supremacy of a Church according to whose principles she was illegitimate and incapable of governing. She restored religious matters to the state they had been in at the completion of the Reformation under Edward VI., and provided for peaceable submission by the Act of Uniformity passed in 1559. She possessed the despotic temper of her father, consequently the democratic views of the Calvinist Puritans found little favour in her eyes.

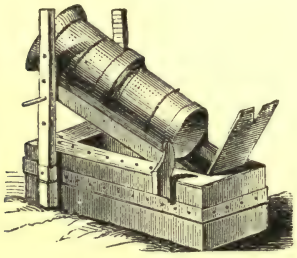


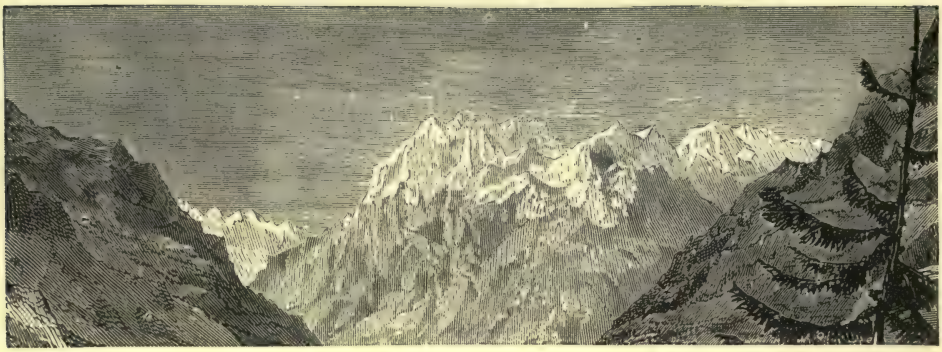
JOHN KNOX BEFORE MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

SCOTLAND.

WHEN Elizabeth had succeeded to the throne of England, the new faith gained a complete victory in Scotland also. For a long while the people, who were seeking for the light of the gospel, strove with the court and the clergy for the precious privilege of freedom of conscience. King James V. upheld the Papacy and the old faith in a conflict with his uncle Henry VIII., and sacrificed the happiness of his life in the cause. After the loss of a battle in 1542, he died overwhelmed with melancholy, a few days after the birth of his daughter Mary Stuart, afterwards the famous and unfortunate Queen of Scots, in whose name her mother, Mary of Guise, a French princess belonging to a devout Catholic family, fulfilled the duties of regent. Supported by France, the court and clergy were well able to repress the reformation with the most vigorous measures. Executions, imprisonment, and flight diminished the ranks of the most dauntless adherents of the reformation in Scotland, and terrified the faint-hearted. From the day when the young nobleman, Patrick Hamilton, whose studies in Germany had made him incline to the new doctrine, died the death of a martyr at the stake in 1527, until the martyrdom of the prophetic preacher Wishart, many victims died, sacrifices to the vengeance of the old faith. But

martyrdom was the most powerful means of spreading the new faith among a rude, thoughtful, and true-hearted people. Cardinal Beatoun, the author of most of the executions, fell under the blows of a band of conspirators in his own house in 1546; and though most of the perpetrators expiated their deed of violence by long imprisonment on board French galleys, yet during Mary of Guise's feeble regency the gospel obtained, through the influence of England, a firmer footing and wider propagation among the people. John Knox, who had been in league with Beatoun's murderers and had shared their fate, returned home after eventful years of wandering, and united the reformers into a "Congregation of Christ" in 1557. An arduous struggle now commenced, which lasted over three years. The queen obtained troops from France, where her daughter, who was affianced to the Dauphin, was educated, and where the seeds were sown that produced so fatal a harvest in the young queen's disastrous life,—and the reformers found support in England, for Elizabeth was obliged to protect her crown and faith against Mary's claims. Knox, who had no regard for the sorrows and joys of an earthly existence, placed himself at the head of the troops, encouraged the wavering and indolent by the strength of his rude eloquence, and caused the firebrand to be hurled into monasteries and cathedrals. The death of the queen at last procured the reformers the victory. By a decision of parliament, the declaration of faith, the ritual, and synod of the Calvinist Church were introduced into Scotland, the mass and the "idolatry" of the Romish Church were forbidden under pain of forfeiture of life and property, and most of the Church possessions were bestowed on the nobility,—so that the throne and the new Church, afterwards called, from its regular assemblies, Presbyterian, remained poor. All monasteries, art-treasures, and cathedrals were attacked with the undiscriminating fury of religious vandalism.





SCANDINAVIA, POLAND, AND HUNGARY
IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

KING CHRISTIAN II., 1513–1523.—DISSOLUTION OF THE UNION OF CALMAR.—KING GUSTAVUS VASA, 1523–1559.—SWEDEN UNDER THE SONS OF GUSTAVUS VASA.—POLAND.—SIGISMUND AUGUSTUS II., 1558–1572.—PERIOD OF STRIFE.—ELECTION OF HENRY OF ANJOU AS KING OF POLAND, 1573.—PAX DISSIDENTIUM.—STEPHEN BATHORI OF TRANSYLVANIA.—SIGISMUND III., 1587–1632.—HUNGARY AND THE AUSTRIAN STATES.—FERDINAND I., 1556–1564.—MAXIMILIAN II., 1564–1576.—FOUNDATION OF THE ORDER OF THE JESUITS.—IGNATIUS LOYOLA.

CHRISTIAN II., THE LAST KING OF THE UNION, 1513–23.



CHRISTIAN II., who was a crafty and clever but cruel and revengeful prince, was at last recognised, after many conflicts, as the king of the Union of the three Scandinavian kingdoms. As such he directed his efforts to achieve the establishment of an unlimited royal power, and to the increase of his crown revenues; and at the same time he engaged in an arduous strife; fighting against the aristocracy, the commercial supremacy of the Hanseatic League, and the power of the clergy. At one time, with the assistance of the Archbishop of Upsala, Gustavus Trolle, and strengthened by a papal decree, he caused the most powerful members of the upper classes, to the number of ninety-four, to be executed in the massacre of Stockholm. But far from strengthening his government by such measures, and freeing it from the restrictions imposed by the elective capitulation, he hastened his own overthrow, and the dissolution of the Union of Calmar. Instigated and supported by the inhabitants of Lübeck, the nobility of Jutland rose up against the despotic prince, chose Christian's

uncle, Frederick of Schleswig-Holstein, as their king, and compelled the deposed monarch to fly from the country. At the same time Frederick I. was recognised also by Zealand, Fünen, and Schonen, in 1523.

Gustavus Vasa.



GUSTAVAS VASA.

In Sweden Christian's bad, bloodthirsty government was overthrown even earlier. Gustavas Vasa, a manly youth, on whom had descended the courage and wisdom of his ancestors the Stures, had been sent as a hostage to Denmark by Christian II., who might have known that a man of his character would never bend his neck under a foreign yoke. The prisoner soon found an opportunity to escape to Lübeck, where he not only obtained protection, but also received money and promises of assistance in his projected attempt for the liberation of his fatherland. In the same year, 1520, when the Stockholm massacre filled the nation with terror, and the Danish rule seemed stronger than ever, Gustavus landed, from a merchant vessel, on his native shores. After innumerable dangers and adventures, he repeatedly escaped, through his own undaunted resolution and the fidelity of his countrymen, from the persecutions of Christian, whose executioners were always at his heels—until he at last found help and protection among the rude inhabitants of the valleys of the north. With a troop of hardy peasants he conquered Falun, with the Kupferberg, or copper mountain, defeated the troops of the archbishop and his allies who were favourable to the Danes, and took possession of Westeras and Upsala in 1521. The renown of his name and the alluring cry inviting to freedom resounded throughout the land, and numbers of soldiers rallied round him. The Diet of Wadstena appointed Gustavus Vasa governor and commander of the army; and the people of Lübeck supplied him with troops, ammunition, and money. By this means his influence and authority became so firmly established, that the Danish garrison in Stockholm quitted Sweden and left the enemy in possession of the field. At the same time when Christian II. was seeking assistance from abroad against Denmark, Gustavus Vasa, who was elected king at the Diet of Streugnas, made his entry into the capital of Sweden in June, 1523. Nearly all the fortresses and strongholds in the kingdom voluntarily opened their gates to him, and at Malmoe a lasting peace was concluded between Denmark and Sweden, through the mediation of the people of Lübeck, whose continued assistance he procured by the granting of great privileges and commercial advantages in 1524. The League of Calmar was thus entirely dissolved; the new kingdom of Sweden nevertheless remained, at first, an elective monarchy, until, twenty years later, the Diet of Westeras declared the crown hereditary. Both Sweden and Denmark adopted the reformed faith.

Sweden under the Sons of Gustavus Vasa.



KING ERIC XIV.

THE reigns of Gustavus's sons, of whom the great king left four, Eric, John, Magnus, and Charles, proved a disastrous period for Sweden. Eric XIV. (1560–68), who by the acquisition of Esthland, had laid the foundation of sovereignty over the east coast of the Baltic, was of such a passionate nature that his mind became totally unhinged, and he fell into a state of furious insanity. In this condition he murdered with his own hand several members of the noble-hearted family of the Stures, and terrified all the nobles with a prospect of a similar fate. His brothers John and Charles, whose lives and property were threatened by the gloomy suspicion and envy of the king, at last formed a conspiracy against him which resulted in Eric's deposition. The unhappy king was thrown into prison, where, after enduring ill-treatment, he at last died, in 1574, of poison, which was administered to him by his brother and successor John, in obedience to a decision of the council of the kingdom. John III. (1568–92) was a feeble prince of extremely vacillating character. Nevertheless, he compelled Denmark to renounce her claims to Sweden in the peace of Stellin, and strengthened his supremacy over the Baltic against the Russians; but in his own country his ill-advised change of religion excited violent attacks against the throne. Entirely under the influence of his wife, a Polish princess of strict Catholic principles, he sought to effect a gradual restoration of the old form of religion. But his efforts were rendered fruitless by the resistance that the people everywhere offered to the performance of Catholic ceremonies. The weak king even allowed himself to be persuaded by the crafty Jesuit Possevino to abjure the Lutheran faith, and to educate his son as a Catholic; but when his second wife, whose predilections were in favour of the Evangelical doctrine, endeavoured to uphold the Protestant Church, he repented of the steps he had taken, and endeavoured to bring about the expulsion of the Jesuits. And in order that during the reign of his son and successor, the Catholic Sigismund (1592–1600), who was already king of Poland, the Lutheran Confession might not again be endangered, the Synod of Upsala, at the instigation of Charles of Sudermania, the youngest son of Gustavus Vasa, established the Evangelical Church doctrines, which had been introduced by Gustavus Vasa, as the religion of the country in 1593. When, however, Sigismund acted in opposition to this decree, which he had himself confirmed, the diet of the

kingdom issued a proclamation declaring that the Evangelical-Lutheran faith should be the only prevailing and the only permitted religion in Sweden; and when Sigismund had returned to Poland, appointed his uncle Charles of Sudermania administrator of the kingdom (1598). Sigismund, who was displeased at this proceeding, took up arms, but was defeated by his uncle near Stangobro; whereupon a diet of the kingdom summoned by Charles, demanded of Sigismund that he should either renounce the Popish religion and come home to rule his country in person, or send his son within five months to Sweden, that he might be brought up in the State religion of the land. As Sigismund refused this request, Charles IX. (1600–1611), the defender of Protestantism, obtained the throne, to which he had long aspired. A new law of succession secured the throne to Charles's descendants. The war with Poland, a struggle which was inherited by his son Gustavus Adolphus, ended to the advantage of Sweden; for Liefland and a portion of Prussia were soon united with its other Baltic possessions (Finland, Esthland, etc.).

Poland.

PERSECUTED and fugitive religious reformers from different countries found in Poland a place of refuge, under the protection of Sigismund Augustus II. (1558–72), and different nobles, Bohemian brothers, Lutherans, and reformers established communities; and even those whose doctrines were rejected by Luther and Calvin (such as the Socinians) were tolerated in Poland. After long wars, all the opponents of the Roman Catholic Church who were designated Dissidents met together at a synod of Sandomir for the purpose of drawing up a common declaration of faith, in 1570.

After Sigismund Augustus II., with whom the race in Poland became extinct, a stormy period succeeded, until final agreement was arrived at in the election of a king in the person of the French prince, Henry of Anjou (1573). During this interregnum a religious peace, known as the *Pax Dissidentium*, was concluded, on the strength of which Catholics and Dissenters were to enjoy continual peace and equal civil rights; but the bishoprics and church benefices were to remain in the possession of the Catholic party. The ratification of this peace was one of the articles of the elective capitulation, which was confirmed by Henry of Anjou, and after his secret flight and consequent deposition, was also accepted by his successor, Stephen Bathori of Transylvania. But even under the Swedish king Sigismund III. (1587–1632), the Catholic party increased in strength by reason of the attractions which the Crown and the Church were able to offer to the nobility; while many Dissidents, who were dissatisfied by the common declaration of faith, renewed their internal dissensions. Sigismund's long and feeble reign was an unfortunate period for Poland. The nobility, who were split up into factions, forgot obedience and respect for the law, and extended their privileges at the expense of the Crown. Disastrous wars with Sweden, Russia, and Turkey, impeded all attempts at improvement and civilization, and what Poland gained from Russia on the east, such as Smolensk, Severia, etc., was a small compensation for the lost territories on the Baltic, which it was compelled to yield up to Sweden.



THE CATHEDRAL OF CASSAU, HUNGARY.

HUNGARY AND THE AUSTRIAN STATES.

Though during the reign of Ferdinand I. (1556–1564), who in his latter days no longer prevented the preaching and spreading of the new faith, the reformation had already found many adherents, their number still further increased under the gentle and humane Maximilian II. (1564–1576). This benevolent prince granted to the Austrian nobility who were especially in favour of the new doctrine, and also to the towns, perfect freedom of conscience and religion, regardless of the anger of the Pope. In Hungary the reformation made still greater progress, for at an early period the teachings of Luther had penetrated into the country, and had been disseminated partly by natives who had studied at Wittenberg, and partly by German troops, who were the champions of the claims of the Hapsburgs to the throne of Hungary. The Germans in Hungary for the most part held to the Augsburg Confession, and among the Magyars Calvinism found numerous disciples. Luther's writings were brought to Transylvania by merchants of Hermannstadt from the fair at Leipzig, and after many persecutions all the States of Saxony declared in favour of the Confession of Augsburg. In Bohemia the Lutherans and Utraquists survived the persecution of Ferdinand. Their number increased during the reign of Maximilian, and even the priest-ridden Rudolph II. (1576–1612), who oppressed the Protestants in all his dominions, found himself compelled to grant the Evangelical party in Bohemia, by a royal charter freedom of religion, equality with the Catholics, and specially appointed defenders for the protection of their rights (July, 1609).

The Order of Jesuits.



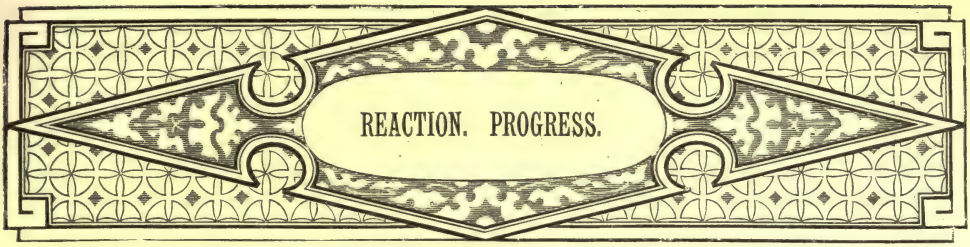
IGNATIUS LOYOLA.

AMONG the most important events of this epoch was the establishment of the Order of the Jesuits. The founder of this corporation, Ignatius Loyola, was the son of a poor Spanish nobleman from the Basque mountains. During the heroic defence of Pampeluna against the French (1521) he received a severe wound, which laid him on a sick bed. The perusal of the lives of the saints during a long and painful recovery excited in him a longing "to obtain, like St. Franciscus, heavenly bliss by means of earthly misery." He hung up his sword and dagger in the chapel of the Holy Virgin of Montserrat, to whose pure worship he dedicated himself, girded his loins with a rope, and undertook a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. He wandered, begging from place to place, his body worn by self-mortification and penances; by a daily seven hours' prayer he fed the flame of piety, and held temptation at bay. After having stilled his longing by fervent prayer at the Holy Sepulchre, he conceived the idea of becoming the founder of a new order. With incredible perseverance he obtained the necessary culture in Salamanca, and afterwards in Paris (1534).

In the following year Ignatius passed through Spain, where he was venerated as a saint, to Italy, to make suitable arrangements with his followers in Venice. After some consideration, Pope Paul III. gave his approval to the formation of the Society of Jesus. Ignatius was the first general of the order, but the society owes not to him, but to his wise successor, the Spaniard Lainez, who died 1564, its finely conceived organization, and subsequent power and influence. Ignatius Loyola died in 1556.



THE INQUISITION: THE TORTURE BY FIRE.



PERIOD OF

PHILIP THE SECOND OF SPAIN, 1556–1598,

AND OF

ELIZABETH OF ENGLAND, 1558–1603.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL IN THE TIME OF PHILIP II.—SINISTER POLICY OF THE KING.—THE INQUISITION AND THE AUTOS DA FÉ.—THE PEACE OF THE CHATEAU-CAMBRESIS.—POPE PAUL IV.—UNITED ACTION OF FRANCE AND SPAIN.—ACQUISITION OF PORTUGAL BY SPAIN.—DECLINE OF PORTUGAL.—BATTLE OF ALCASSAR IN 1578.—THE FALSE SABASTIANS.—PORTUGUESE TRADE DESTROYED.—THE STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM IN THE NETHERLANDS.—THE GOVERNORSHIP OF MARGARET OF PARMA.—DISCONTENTS IN THE NETHERLANDS AND THEIR CAUSES.—TYRANNY IN THE CHURCH.—CARDINAL GRANVELLA.—THE INQUISITION.—RELIGIOUS DISTURBANCES: IMAGE BREAKING.—THE PETITION OF THE NOBLES PRESENTED TO MARGARET.—ITS REJECTION BY THE KING.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL UNDER PHILIP II.

THERE were three things which the gloomy, cold, and suspicious Philip II. regarded as the aim of his life—the increase of his power, the extermination of Protestantism, and the annulling of all popular rights. To these misanthropic aspirations he sacrificed the happiness of nations, and the love of his people and of his nearest relatives. While he despatched his fleets and armies against his Protestant subjects, and made war on prosperous states and industrious citizens, the Corsairs, with their bold piracies, destroyed the trade of the Mediterranean and plundered the coast countries; and the weakened Porte found time to recover from the loss of Lepanto, and to oppress Christian countries with its despotic sway. His costly wars (the Dutch war alone is said to have cost five hundred and sixty-four millions), and his false policy, founded on bribery and corruption, consumed the marrow of the country; and in spite of the treasures of America and the West Indies,

brought the finances into such a lamentable condition at the time of his death, that a bankruptcy of the State was only averted by recourse to extreme measures. Philip was led also by his blighting suspicion to take cruel vengeance on his own relatives. The chivalrous Don John of Austria was so feebly supported by his envious half-brother in his enterprises against Tunis and the Mohammedan Corsairs of North Africa, that he was able to accomplish nothing; and when he afterwards created a suitable sphere of activity for his energies in the Netherlands, Philip surrounded him with a tissue of deceit, treachery, and slander, so that he died prematurely of grief and vexation (1578). Philip's vehement, passionate son, Don Carlos, died, burdened by a terrible accusation, in the privacy of the palace, under circumstances that pointed to the possibility of a death by violence (1568); and when, a few months afterwards, the king's French wife, the virtuous Elizabeth, also suddenly passed away, a terrible connection was suspected between the two events; but these speculations come within the domain only of romance and poetry, not of history.

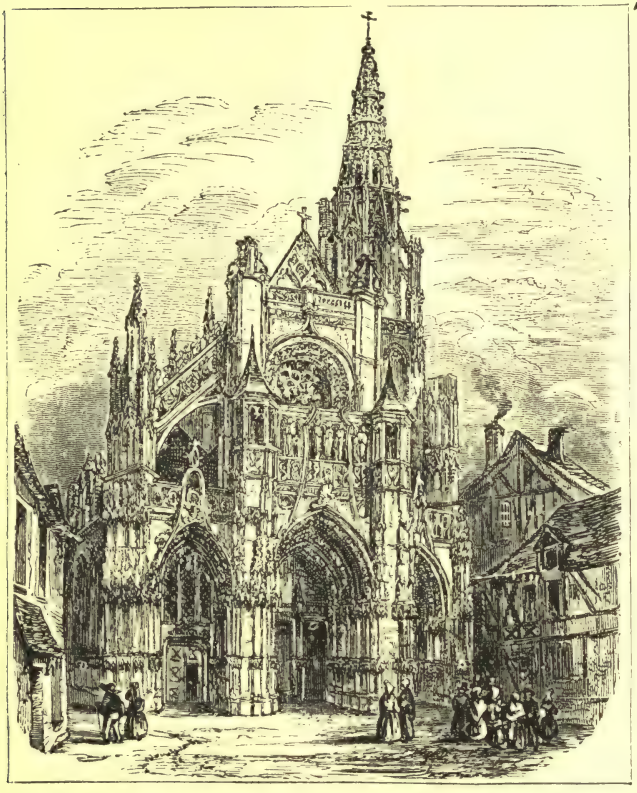


WILLIAM THE SILENT, PRINCE OF ORANGE.

In combination with the priesthood, Philip developed the inhuman policy, made up of spying and of police despotism, which has since remained the curse of most Catholic countries, and which, in the peninsulas of the Pyrenees and Apennines, has resulted in a deadly stagnation and incapacity for progress. Philip did not, like his father, march at the head of his armies through the countries of Europe; he kept concealed behind the walls of his palace in Madrid, and controlled the destinies of his people from Spain, and by means of Spaniards. After a reign of two and forty years, which was the grave of Spanish liberty, he died of a terrible disease. Unwept and unregretted, he was interred, in 1598, in a marble vault of the magnificent church of the Escurial, which he had had erected in memory of the victory of St. Quentin. The proud position to which Spain had attained under Philip's predecessors certainly remained, but it was only the after-growth of a former greatness; for neither arts nor

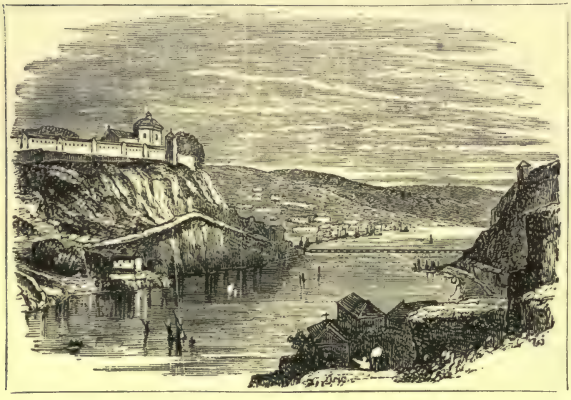
science, nor any of the activities of a free spirit, could flourish under a prince who favoured the Inquisition and the Jesuits, and took pleasure in the horrors of *autos da fé*.

The Peace of Chateau-Cambresis.



THOUGH Philip II. regarded it as his most important duty to win back the lost supremacy of the Roman Church, and according to his own account "would rather cease to be king than rule over unbelievers," it was nevertheless the head of the Church, the violent Pope Paul IV., who, in conjunction with Henry II. of France, endeavoured to drive the hated Spaniards from Italy and seize part of their dominions. Alva's sudden invasion of the state of the Church, and his victorious advance to the vicinity of Rome, certainly frustrated Paul's schemes, but the bigoted king granted the spiritual prince an advantageous peace, while he continued the war with Henry II. for three years longer, until the victories of the Spanish-Dutch troops under Philibert of Savoy, and Egmont, compelled the French to accept the Peace of Chateau-Cambresis (1559), in which they surrendered all their conquests, especially Piedmont and Savoy, but, on the other hand, remained in possession of Calais and the towns of Metz, Toul, and Verdun. A double marriage cemented the treaty of peace: Philip, who had shortly before lost his wife, Queen Mary of England, espoused Henry's daughter Elizabeth, who had formerly been betrothed to Don Carlos; and Emanuel Philibert, of Savoy, won the hand of Henry's sister, Margaret. But the marriage festivities were marred by the death of the chivalrous French king, who fell pierced by the lance of a knight named Montgomeri, in the tournament held in honour of the occasion.

PORTUGAL UNITED WITH SPAIN.



DURING the reign of John III. (1521–1557), the son of Emanuel the Great, expeditions of discovery were continued in the Indies, and the knowledge of the countries and the trade of Portugal were greatly increased. But industry did not keep pace with the quickly won wealth, and disastrous consequences were the result; for while the treasures of the Indies were accumulated in a few families, the mass of the nation was sunk in indolence and poverty; and when in addition the Jesuits and the court of the Inquisition were actively engaged in binding the people with spiritual fetters, and thus paralysing their powers, the prosperity of Portugal quickly passed away, leaving no trace behind. The old rights and privileges succumbed, as in Spain, to the absolute royal power and to the hierarchy; the people were kept in subjection, and soon lost the heroic temper which had formerly inspired them to mighty deeds. The new judicial regulations which had been introduced by John, and the transfer of the grand mastership of the order of knights to the crown, still further increased the royal supremacy.

During the minority of John's grandson, Sebastian (1557–78), the Jesuits obtained great influence in the government; and as they took the education of the young king entirely into their own hands, they sought to give him a tendency that would be favourable to the security of their supremacy. Obedience to the Pope and conflict with unbelievers were held up to him as the highest virtues of a Christian prince, and he was imbued with the fanatical temper of a crusader. He had therefore scarcely attained his majority before he contemplated adventurous enterprises; and when a deposed prince of Morocco applied to him for help, he eagerly seized the opportunity of marching against the infidel Moors, and thus satisfying at the same time his zeal for conversion and his love of conquest. On a sultry day in August he suddenly attacked the superior army of the enemy in the plain of Alcassar, in Africa, and sustained a terrible defeat (1578). Twelve thousand Christian warriors covered the battle-field; among the missing was King Sebastian, and his corpse was never discovered.

This was a disastrous event for Portugal—for when two years later the brother of John III., the old cardinal Henry (1578–80), who had unexpectedly succeeded to the throne, died without issue, three pretenders, among them Philip II., the son of the eldest sister of John III., laid claim to the Portuguese throne. The nobles and people, out of national hatred and jealousy, were opposed to a union with Spain, and favoured another candidate, the Maltese Prior Antonio, who declared himself to be a legitimate grandson of Emanuel; but Philip asserted his claim by an army commanded by Alva. His rival was defeated and put to flight (1580), Lisbon surrendered, and soon the whole land followed the example of the capital. After the executioner's axe had



THE TRIUMPH OF ISLAM AT ALCASSAR.

made away with the most influential opponents of Spanish supremacy, the trembling people obeyed Philip's mandates.

But hatred of the oppressive tyranny, which in Portugal was aggravated by suspicion, could not be eradicated. The Portuguese looked on with sorrow while the repeated attempts of Antonio, who was supported by England and France, were brought to nought ; and directed their expectant glances to the false Sebastians, who from time to time promised a liberation from the Spanish yoke. When, however, Antonio died miserably in Paris, in poverty and in constant fear of death, and the fourth Sebastian, whose legitimacy was generally believed, was put to death in a Spanish prison, they bowed to the inevitable (1598). It is true that its constitution, laws, and separate administration were secured to the country; but the gradual annulling of the power of the nobility, and the systematic alienation of royal domains, showed significantly that the endeavour of the Spanish government was to render the independence of Portugal under a national king impossible. But it was this very effort which awakened the national feeling of the Portuguese, and brought about the liberation of the country through the wealthy and distinguished Duke of Braganza.

The disastrous Spanish rule lasted for sixty years, during which time the naval power of the Portuguese was destroyed, their transmarine possessions fell mostly into the hands of the Dutch, and European trade transferred its principal mart from Lisbon to Amsterdam and London.



The Dutch Wars for Freedom.—Margaret of Parma's Governorship.

In former years Charles V. had already given much cause of complaint to the Dutch provinces, which were jealous of their inherited liberties and privileges. The frequent demands of taxation, the constant presence of foreign troops, the severe exercise of the Edict of Worms against the Lutherans, of whom many died in prison or on the scaffold, had created much discontent, and even excited the people of Ghent to insurrection, for which they had been heavily chastised. But Charles was a Fleming; he felt for the people among whom he was born; he loved their customs and their character, and bore their ill-humour with indulgence; he was friendly and agreeable to the nobility and citizens, and flattered their national pride by preferring them to his other subjects. It was quite otherwise with Philip. He was a Spaniard, and treated the Netherlands like the Italian States, merely as provinces, which he ruled with Spanish officials and guarded with Spanish troops. His pride and cold reserve wounded the citizens, and his hatred of all popular rights made him the natural opponent of the Dutch, whose whole existence was made up of their civil rights and liberties. Among these liberties the most important were the power of self-taxation, independent jurisdiction, and freedom from the presence of Spanish troops and officials.

Discontent was at first excited because Philip, after installing his half-sister, Margaret of Parma, a woman of masculine temper and judicious demeanour, as stadtholder at Brussels (1559), made the council of state, which was composed of the first nobles in the country, subordinate to a foreigner of obscure birth, the crafty Cardinal Granvella, son of the Imperial Chancellor, and established a Spanish garrison in the country. For the lively and excitable Netherlanders hated the cold, arrogant stranger. This ill-feeling increased when, in order to guard the pure faith and the order of the Church, the laws against heresy were intensified, and fourteen new bishoprics were established, which were placed under the supervision of Cardinal Granvella, who had been appointed Archbishop of Mechlin, for the support of which see sums of money had been drawn from other benefices and monasteries. This addition to the already existing bishoprics of the country, without the consent of the estates, excited all the more apprehension as the ultimate object of the innovation appeared to be the introduction of the tyrannous Spanish Inquisition; for in the papal bull two Inquisitors were nominated for each of the new bishoprics, and the cardinal already bore the title of a grand Inquisitor. In vain did the patriotic party, who were intent on the protection of the institutions of the country from the destructive plans of the Spanish government, seek to induce the king to relinquish this unconstitutional policy, and to recall the hated cardinal; Philip returned evasive answers, and only agreed to the dismissal of Granvella, which was urgently demanded even by the cardinal himself, when William of Orange, stadtholder of Holland, Lamoral, Count of

Egmont, stadtholder of Flanders, and Count Von Hoorn, ceased to attend the sittings in the council of state, and the regent also counselled the withdrawal.

But Granvella's Machiavelan views found defenders even after his recall (1564), and the king's desire to introduce into the country the decisions of the



THE PROCESSION OF THE PETITIONING NOBLES (*see next page*).

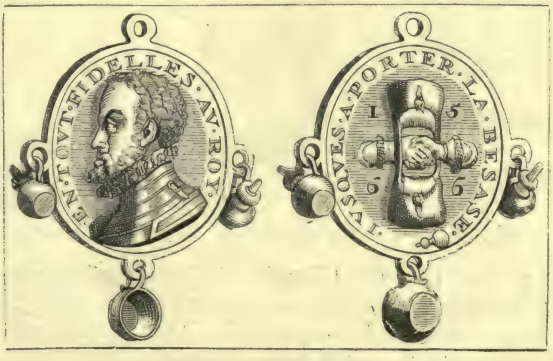
Council of Trent proved that the thought of church uniformity lay deep within him, and that a mitigation of the laws against heretics, or the granting of freedom of belief, was not to be expected. This was verified in the answer which he gave to Egmont, who had been despatched to Madrid by the council

of state and by the regent, that "he would rather die a thousand times, and lose every square foot of his kingdom, than permit the slightest alteration in religion" (1565). Stricter instructions to the Inquisitors and the increasing executions, imprisonments, and cruel persecutions, proved the earnestness of these words. William of Orange, who was born of Lutheran parents, but had been brought up in the Roman Church, was so much aggrieved at this severity, which condemned many of his countrymen to banishment or the scaffold, that he about this time embraced the Evangelical faith, which was the recognised religion of his subjects.

The Confederation of the Gueux, or Beggars, and the Destruction of Images.

THE new Church found followers among the citizen class alone; the nobility remained constant, for the most part, to the old faith, but were resolved to strenuously oppose the Inquisition, in which they perceived the grave of national liberty.

With this object some four hundred nobles signed the so-called compromise (November, 1565) for resistance against the Inquisition, and for mutual aid in religious persecutions, and then drew up a petition for the abolition of the laws against heresy, and the suspension of the proceedings of the Inquisition. When they marched up to the palace of the stadtholder, Margaret was in consternation at the number of the petitioners who belonged to the first families (April, 1566). One of the councillors, who was standing near her, besought her not to be afraid of "those rogues (Gueux)," an expression which ultimately became the watchword of their league. They called themselves "The Beggars," and in future wore round their necks a medal with Philip's head and the inscription: "Faithful to the king to the beggar's wallet." The petition, however, was unsuccessful. The bishops, to whom was made over the control of the Inquisition, continued to punish heretics with execution, banishment, and loss of property; and the general pardon which was granted at the request of the regent was rendered illusory by a secret protest of the king. In spite of this the religious reform gained ground; psalms were sung, the open-air preaching of evangelical ministers was attended by thousands, and priests, monks, images of the Virgin, and holy relics were treated with derision. Everywhere there prevailed in the atmosphere that electric tension which precedes a storm.



MEDAL OF THE GUEUX.

THE STRUGGLE IN THE NETHERLANDS, AND THE CLOSE OF THE REIGN OF PHILIP II.

THE LAST DAYS OF MARGARET OF PARMA IN BRUSSELS.—IMAGE BREAKING.—ARRIVAL OF ALVA; HIS REGENCY, 1567–1573.—TERROR IN FLANDERS.—CRUELTIES OF ALVA.—EXECUTION OF COUNTS EGMONT AND HOORN.—TYRANNY AND EXACTIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT.—REVOLT OF BRILL AND OTHER MARITIME TOWNS.—UTRECHT AND HAARLEM.—WILLIAM THE SILENT, PRINCE OF ORANGE, AND DON JOHN OF AUSTRIA.—THE HEROISM OF LEYDEN.—GOVERNMENT OF DON JOHN, 1573–1578.—ALEXANDER FARNESE OF PARMA, 1578–1592.—CONFEDERATION OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.—ASSASSINATION OF WILLIAM THE SILENT, 1584.—THE INVINCIBLE ARMADA, 1588.—NETHERLANDS FREE.—THE END OF MARGARET OF PARMA'S REGENCY.



LAMORAL, COUNT EGMONT.

AT last, in the Flemish cities, Antwerp and Brussels, and throughout Flanders and Brabant, the long-restrained wrath of the people broke forth in violent tumult at the religious intolerance (August, 1566). A mob of people belonging to the lowest class mutilated several crucifixes and images of the Virgin, which were placed along the road; soon the increasing

crowd attacked churches and monasteries, pillaged or destroyed sacred vessels and ornaments, and indulged in riot and desecration. In three days four hundred churches and chapels were dismantled. The streets were strewn with broken images of the Virgin and the Saviour, and with fragments of sacred works of art.

These events brought about a breach between the heads of the nation. Those nobles who upheld the old Church separated themselves from those who espoused the new doctrine. The regent, who was a wise woman, and practised in the arts of dissimulation, succeeded therefore, by severity on the one hand and moderation on the other, in firmly establishing peace. By means of some hastily collected troops, she forced several rebellious towns, such as the bravely defended Valenciennes, and a little later Antwerp, to submission, established a strict tribunal over the inconoclasts and religious reformers, and won over the moderate party by promising to mitigate the laws against heresy, and to draw the veil of forgiveness and oblivion over the past.

The Duke of Alva (1567–1573).



It was otherwise decided at the court of Madrid. After long deliberation as to whether the leniency of the regent, or the severe measures demanded by Alva would most quickly and surely reduce the nation to obedience, the latter opinion was victorious, and Alva, the despotic servant of a tyrannical master, marched with a select army, composed of Spaniards and Italians, into the Netherlands (August, 1567). The terror which was inspired by his approach, drove the inhabitants to flight; over a hundred thousand merchants and workmen carried their industries and their property to other countries, especially to England. William of Orange, the head of the patriotic party, a thoughtful, cautious man, in the full vigour of his years, resolute, energetic, and silent, avoided the storm, and set out for Germany, the land of his birth, where many valued friends gathered round him. He parted with tears from Egmont, whom he had vainly endeavoured to persuade to the same step. It was not in Egmont's cheerful nature to believe in Spanish treachery, of which Orange warned him. In the consciousness of his honourable aspiration, and confiding in his past services and continued fidelity and devotion to the reigning house, he awaited Alva's arrival. He did not possess the far-reaching glance of his friend, and hesitated to leave his Flemish dominion. But scarcely had the proud duke arrived in Brussels, furnished with unlimited powers, than he caused the inoffensive Egmont, the people's idol, and the brave von Hoorn, to be imprisoned by his natural son Ferdinand of Toledo, in his palace of the Eulemborg-haus, and then caused them to be accused of high treason before the newly-established "Council of Disturbances,"—when both of them, together with eighteen other nobles, were sentenced to death, and beheaded in the market-place at Brussels, in June, 1568.

By removing the heads of the nobility, on whom chiefly lay the burden of the insurrection, it was hoped that the nation, deprived of leadership, would easily be brought to a mute obedience. Fearful havoc did the executioner's



THE FLEMISH NOBLES' PETITION TO MARGARET OF PARMA.

axe now make throughout the unfortunate country. The regent Margaret, horrified at the cruelty of the despotism, which she was compelled passively to behold, renounced her office, and set out for Italy, remembered with veneration by her subjects. The Council of Disturbances, established by Alva, called by the Netherlanders the "Council of Blood," now continued its proceedings with incredible severity. A hard, unscrupulous Spaniard named Vargas, who was unfamiliar with the laws and customs of the people, now assumed the presidency, and carried out the commands of the tyrannical duke. Avarice, cruelty, and fanaticism, all claimed their victims. In every place the gallows were erected; funeral piles were lighted for Protestant preachers and stiff-necked believers in the gospel. Both iconoclastic reformers and peaceful Calvinists and Lutherans were hung to the beams of demolished chapels. The happy national existence of the Netherlands had entirely disappeared, and the horror of an immense universal tomb filled all minds. The citizens of Antwerp were compelled to furnish the money for the construction of the citadels by means of which Alva endeavoured to fetter both town and country. The son of William of Orange, who had been left behind at Liege, was brought by the king to Madrid, where efforts were made to instil into him, by a fanatical education, hatred towards the new faith, and towards his own father.



STATUE OF JACQUES D'ARTEVELDE OF GHENT.

While the terrible Council of Blood threatened life and liberty, Alva's schemes of taxation endangered prosperity and trade. Dissatisfied with the legal regulation, by means of which taxes could only be granted by the classes of every district for a *short term*, and could be imposed and abolished at pleasure, Alva demanded a continuous tax at high interest, and imposed it in a manner extremely disadvantageous to trade and commerce. In spite of protests, Alva persisted in his demand; but through this arbitrary attack on the laws of the country, which threatened the merchant as well as the landowner, the Catholic as well as the Protestant with equal ruin, he awakened the cowed spirit of opposition, and brought together those disputants who had been separated by the controversy over the Confession. When Alva caused a heavy tax on each sale or transfer of goods to be arbitrarily collected, the Brussels merchants closed their warehouses, the grocers, bakers, etc., shut up

their shops, and refused payment. The tyrannical duke had already threatened to hang the refractory citizens before their houses, when the news arrived that a band of emigrants, who had become rovers on the ocean, and had in consequence obtained the name of Sea-Gueux, had conquered the harbour town of Brill, and that several towns in Holland and Zealand had gone over to them; this intelligence encouraged timid minds, and disconcerted the



ARRIVAL OF THE DUKE OF ALVA IN BRUSSELS.

Spaniards (April, 1572). Soon afterwards William of Orange, who had returned, succeeded in bringing about a union between the northern provinces. He was recognised as stadtholder of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, and Friseland, and was supplied with money and military forces. The resistance now took a more serious form. The cruelties which were perpetrated by the

Spanish troops at Alva's command in some of the rebellious towns, like Haarlem, Naarden, etc., where they cut down the inhabitants without regard to sex or age, plundered the dwellings, and after having satiated themselves in murder, pillage, and brutal sensuality, threw lighted torches into the desolate houses and churches, spread horror and indignation throughout the whole country, and induced the Court at Madrid to decide on Alva's recall, in December, 1573.

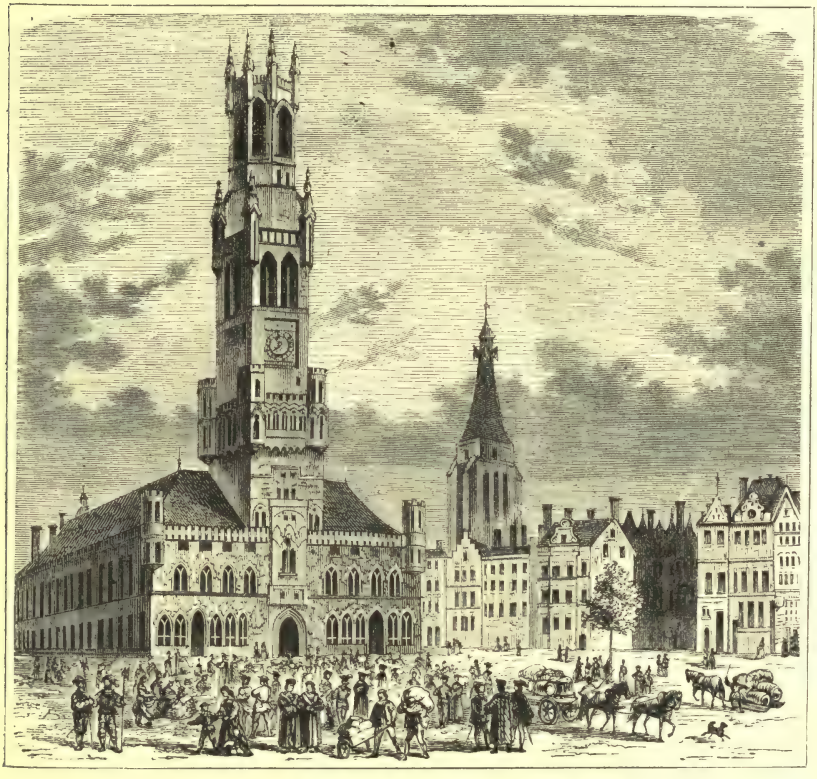
The Prince of Orange and Don John of Austria.



LVA'S successor, Louis of Zuinga and Requescens, certainly gave evidence, by his abolition of the Council of Disturbances, of a more indulgent temper; as, however, he could neither protect liberty of conscience nor restrain the brutality of the troops, to whom he owed pay, nor abolish the oppressive taxation, neither his restricted amnesty, nor the repeated attempts at mediation of the well-meaning Emperor Maximilian II., could restore the lost confidence and induce the indignant provinces to lay down their weapons. The stadtholder, it is true, won the battle on the Mooker Heath near Nimeguen (1574), where two brothers of Orange met a hero's death; but his success was rendered fruitless by the passion for liberty, and the bravery of the citizens of Leyden. When the town could no longer endure the ordeal of hunger, pestilence, and hostile attacks, the citizens opened the dams and let in the waters of the North Sea, which had long been an enemy to their prosperity, so that a large number of the enemy's forces were drowned in the flood, and boats, laden with provisions, could approach the walls, bringing deliverance to the hungry townspeople. A Protestant university was the reward for this act of sacrifice; for in the same year the northern provinces had accepted the Heidelberg Catechism at a synod in Dordrecht, established Calvinism as the religion of the country, and increased their military forces with confiscated church property. This religious opposition widened the breach between the Netherlanders and the Spaniards; consequently the peace congress at Breda (1575), which was summoned under the mediation of the German Emperor Maximilian II., was productive of no result.

Soon afterwards Zuinga died; and until the arrival of the new stadtholder, the Council of State conducted the administration and controlled the military power. As it was not in a position, however, to restrain the violence of the lawless and unpaid troops, who wrecked and pillaged the wealthy towns of Maestricht and Antwerp, Orange, who was invested with greater power in the northern provinces, succeeded in uniting all the districts by the Treaty of Ghent (1576), with the object of rendering each other mutual assistance in the expulsion of the Spanish army, and until the church affairs should be properly regulated not to permit punishment to be inflicted on any man on the score of religion. These points formed the basis of the so-called "Eternal Treaty" concluded between the new Spanish stadtholder, Don Juan, and the provinces, in 1577. But the vague manner to which the article on religious toleration was drawn up, and the simultaneous appearance of a threatening bull of the Pope, induced the states of Holland and Zealand to refuse their acquiescence in the treaty, and to continue the conflict. Soon the other provinces observed

that Don Juan did not act honestly and fairly towards them, that he gave the preference to Spaniards in the distribution of appointments and offices, made preparations for commencing fresh religious persecutions, and endeavoured to gain possession of the rebellious towns by violence. The Estates of Brabant, therefore, refused obedience to him, and elected William of Orange as stadtholder; but as the native nobility and the strict believers did not love the



THE MARKET-PLACE AT BRUGES IN THE 16TH CENTURY.

Calvinist Prince of Orange, the Arch-duke Matthias of Austria was made joint ruler with him, while the French-speaking Walloon districts (Hainault and Artois) entered into an alliance with Duke Francis of Anjou.

Thus the power of resistance and the number of enemies increased at the very moment when Don Juan breathed his last, in 1578, his end hastened by chagrin and vexation at the failure of his plans.

Alexander Farnese of Parma (1578–1592).

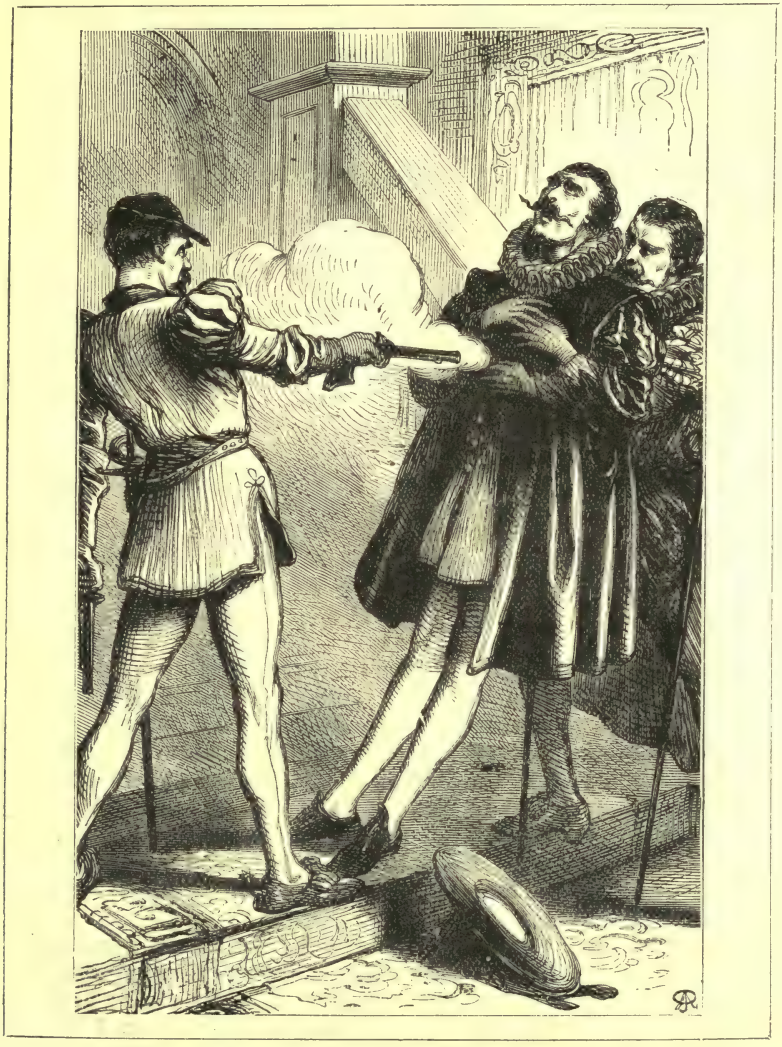


POPE SIXTUS V.

IT was, however, through the dissensions between the ruling powers, which divided interests and fostered jealousy and quarrelling, that it became possible for the wise, adroit, and martial successor of Don Juan, Duke Alexander Farnese, of Parma, the son of the former stadtholder Margaret, to uphold the tottering supremacy of Spain in the south. He awakened the jealousy of the Brabantine nobility against the Prince of Orange, and aroused the religious zeal of the Catholic south against the Evangelical north. This induced Orange to unite the northern states (Holland, Zealand, Guelderland, Utrecht, Overijssel, Friseland, Gröningen), by means of the "Union of Utrecht" (1579), into a close alliance for mutual co-operation, and for defiance of all religious restraint. This treaty, the first draft of which was very vague, was the foundation of the United States of the Protestant Netherlands. Two years later, allegiance to the king of Spain was formally renounced on the ground "that a people possesses the natural right to refuse obedience to a tyrant, who has acted in opposition to his duty after he has been admonished in vain."

In the south there was not such unanimity of opinion. Matthias quitted Brabant, where he had played but an insignificant part, in 1581, and the Duke of Anjou so completely lost all his influence by his effort to obtain the chief authority with French aid, that he returned to France, where he died soon afterwards, in 1583. The energetic Parma availed himself of this confusion to bring back many towns to obedience. The insurrection, it appeared, would be at an end if the efforts to put the Prince of Orange out of the way should prove successful. Against this prince Philip's whole wrath was accordingly directed. He had already been declared an outlaw, and whosoever should surrender him, living or dead, was promised a large reward and the rank of a noble. These alluring promises, and the activity of rancorous priests, had given occasion for more than one attempt at assassination. Orange had escaped several attacks, but the pistol bullet of the fanatical Gérard from Franche-Comté laid him low at the door of the dining-hall in his palace at Delft, in July, 1584. The assassin was captured, and instead of receiving the hoped-for reward, underwent a painful execution. Still, the death of the founder of Dutch liberty did not bring about the overthrow of his work. The northern provinces, which would not hear of a reconciliation with a king who obstinately refused toleration of their religion, transferred the stadtholdership and the conduct of the war to Maurice, the second son of the late Prince of Orange, while the Council of State, in which the circumspect Oldenbarneveld had the

chief authority, managed internal affairs. But the successful enterprises of Parma, who conquered Ghent, Brussels, Mechlin, Nimuegen, and at last Antwerp, convinced the Netherlanders that without foreign aid they could not be a match for the Spaniards. They therefore first offered the government to King Henry III. of France, and, when that monarch refused it from religious



MURDER OF WILLIAM OF ORANGE.

scruples, made offer of it to Elizabeth, queen of England. The British queen also refused the invitation, but sent troops under the command of her favourite, the Earl of Leicester, on whom the Netherlanders conferred the dignity of a general-stadtholder, with extensive power (1585). It was not long, however, before his equivocal and injudicious conduct, and his intriguing policy excited the suspicion of the deputies ; they set obstacles in his path, and thus brought about his resignation.

The Invincible Armada.



ADMIRAL LORD HOWARD OF EFFINGHAM.

BUT the danger with which both states were threatened by the great armada, kept the English and Dutch united (1588). This "invincible armada," the cost of which was calculated at sixty million dollars, was intended to strike an overpowering blow at all enemies of the Roman Church, and above all to crush England, the hotbed of heresy, and her excommunicated queen, at whose command the Catholic Mary Stuart had shortly before been beheaded, and through whose help the Dutch and the French Huguenots had been able to offer so spirited a resistance to their enemies. But the undertaking resulted in the disgrace and discomfiture of Spain. The fleet, which was commanded by Medina Sidonia, and supported by the Duke of Parma, was shattered by storms, and defeated by the skill and bravery of the English; and those who escaped the fire-ships, the rocks, and the attacks of the enemy in the channel, were most of them dashed to pieces on the coasts of the Hebrides and Shetland isles, for Sidonia determined to return to Spain round Scotland; so that the humiliated admiral only brought back a few shattered remains of the once proud fleet. It was a fatal blow. Even Philip recognised its true character, when he comforted the trembling commander with the words: "I sent you forth against men, not against storms and rocks." This result broke the supremacy of Spain over the sea, and secured the independence of the Netherlands, the more completely because soon afterwards Philip took an active part in the French religious wars, and Parma was therefore obliged on two occasions to lead his troops to France. Consequently his enterprises in the Netherlands were paralysed, and Maurice found an opportunity, by his brilliant martial deeds, to display his talents as a general, and to raise his authority. Parma's death, in 1592, was hastened by mortification at the failure of his enterprises.

Never had the true greatness of Elizabeth, as a queen, appeared so conspicuously as when her throne was menaced by this tremendous peril. She thoroughly identified her own cause with that of her people; and especially, alike in words and actions, she expressed her confidence in her subjects, of every rank and degree. This attack of a foreign power upon her dominions she professed to look upon as an insult offered to every Englishman in her realm; and she boldly expressed her belief, that on this great occasion all private questions and minor disagreements would be put aside, and that men of every shade of religious belief, and of the most various political opinions, would alike stand together for the defence of the laws and liberties of the land. At the same time she was particularly careful to cultivate the confidence and secure the help of those Catholics who did not conceive that

their religious opinions absolved them from their duties as loyal subjects; and they, fully recognising the trust with which their sovereign honoured them, entered in numbers as volunteers for the sea and land service. Never had the nation been so thoroughly united, to the effacing of all differences of creed and party, as at that memorable crisis.

The spirit of the queen was thoroughly exemplified in the speech she made to the army in the camp at Tilbury, where she appeared on horseback, and excited the enthusiasm and loyalty of the troops by her noble words. "My loving people," said the great queen, "we have been persuaded by some that



QUEEN ELIZABETH AT TILBURY FORT.

are careful of our safety to take heed how we commit ourselves to armed multitudes, for fear of treachery; but, I assure you, I do not desire to live to distrust my loving and faithful people. Let tyrants fear: I have always so behaved myself, that under God I have placed my chiefest strength and safeguard in the loyal hearts and goodwill of my subjects; and therefore I am come amongst you, as you see, at this time, not as for my recreation and disport, but being resolved, in the midst and heat of the battle, to live or die amongst you all."

INDEPENDENCE OF THE NETHERLANDS.



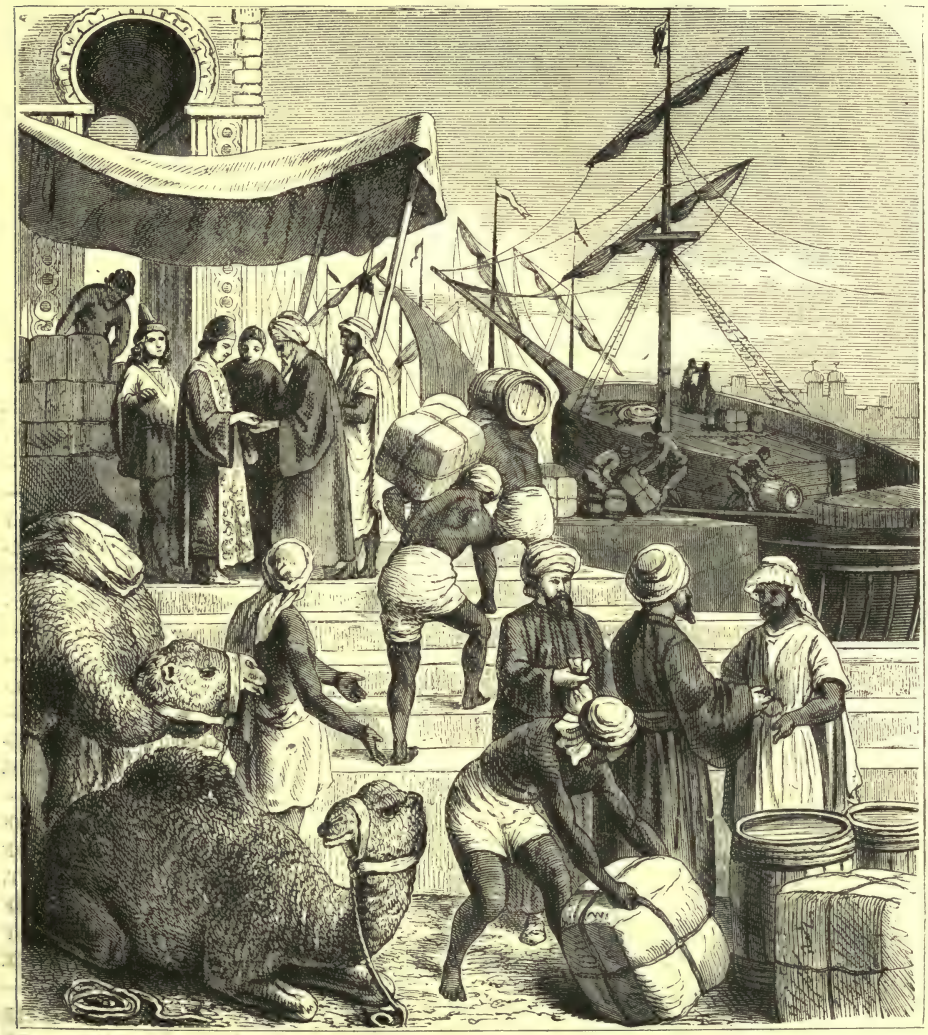
UTRECHT.

WHAT the enterprising Parma had failed to accomplish was even less feasible in the hands of his incapable successor. Therefore shortly before his death, Philip, in 1598, conceived the idea of making over the Netherlands and Franche-Comté to his daughter, Isabella Clara Eugenia, on her marriage with the Archduke Albrecht of Austria, with the stipulation that if there should be no issue of the marriage, the countries should revert to Spain. The southern provinces, comprised in Belgium, agreed to this arrangement, and accepted Albrecht as their stadtholder, after he had guaranteed their rights; but the northern district, Holland, whose independence had been recognised by several courts, rejected the treacherous arrangement, which endangered their religious freedom anew, and steadfastly continued the struggle for liberty and self-government, the blessings of which they had already experienced. It is true the Spanish general Spinola, of Genoa, succeeded after a three years' siege in subjugating the famished and depopulated town of Ostend, and was able to maintain the honour of the Spanish arms against the brave Maurice of Orange; on the other hand, the United Provinces made the most important conquests at sea, and laid the foundation of their commercial greatness.

As Dutch ships, especially during the reign of the feeble King Philip III., were forbidden to enter Spanish and Portuguese harbours, and consequently the intermediate trade in East Indian wares, on which the prosperity of Holland depended, was destroyed, the Dutch sought out for themselves a way to the Indies, and established direct trading communications with such success that they soon founded colonies, and conquered many possessions of the Portuguese. In return for an annual tribute to the Estates, the East India Company obtained the exclusive trade beyond the Cape of Good Hope. Dutch vessels now ruled the seas, to the detriment of the Spanish and Portuguese commerce in the East and West Indies; and this gave the last blow to the rotten government of the successor of Philip II.

For this reason both the King of Spain and the Archduke Albrecht were rejoiced when the mediation of Henry IV. of France succeeded in bringing Maurice and the states of the Netherlands to agree to an armed truce (1609), which secured their independence, religious freedom, and direct trade with the East Indies. The subsequent wars with Spain were to the advantage of

the Netherlands, so that when the independence of the States-General of Holland was recognised in the Peace of Westphalia, the country had not only acquired great possessions in India, but also considerable territories in Brabant and Flanders.



EASTERN TRADE.

During the war of liberation, the constitution of the States-General was developed chiefly through the exertions of the great statesman Oldenbarneveld, who in 1586 was appointed Grand Pensionary of Holland. The province of Holland had the predominance over the others in power, wealth and influence, and her colonial wealth was greatly increased by the monopoly for a time enjoyed in the trade in spices.



FRANCE DURING THE RELIGIOUS WARS.

DEATH OF HENRY II., 1559.—REIGN OF FRANCIS II., 1559–1560.—THE FAMILY OF THE GUISES.—FRANÇOIS DE GUISE.—ANTOINE, KING OF NAVARRE.—THE BOURBONS.—THE PRINCE DE CONDÉ.—THE CONSPIRACY OF AMBOISE.—REIGN OF CHARLES IX., 1560–1574.—CATHARINE DE MEDICIS.—THE FIRST THREE RELIGIOUS WARS, 1561–1570.—MASSACRE OF VASSY.—BATTLE OF DREUX.—HENRY OF GUISE.—TREATY OF AMBOISE, 1563.—RENEWAL OF THE WAR.—SECOND PEACE.—ROCHELLE AND JARNAC, 1569.—BATTLE OF MONCONTOUR.—PEACE OF ST. GERMAINS, 1570.—CHARLES IX. AND THE HUGUENOTS.—OSTENSIBLE RECONCILIATION.—THE KING AND ADMIRAL COLIGNI.—MARRIAGE OF HENRY OF NAVARRE AND MARGARET OF VALOIS.—MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW.—DEATH OF CHARLES IX.—REIGN OF HENRY III., 1574–1589.—THE KING'S DOUBTFUL POLICY.—THE HOLY LEAGUE.—THE BARRICADES.—MURDER OF GUISE AND THE CARDINAL.—DEATH OF HENRY III., ETC.



HENRY OF GUISE.

THE RISE OF THE GUISEAN FACTION.

AT a tournament held at the marriage festivities of two daughters of the French royal house, Henry II., who was as brave and chivalrous, and as unwearied in hunting and in martial games as his father, but even more severe in his persecution of religious reformers, received a wound in the eye

by the lance of Montgomeri, his opponent, from which wound he died (1559). During the reign of his feeble, sickly son, Francis II. (1559–60), the Guises, who were the uncles of the Scotch Mary Stuart, the charming wife of the young king, obtained great power at court. The warlike Duke François de Guise, and his noble brother, the eloquent and wise Cardinal of Lorraine, were the most important members of this proud and ambitious family. They were zealous champions of the papal authority, on which depended the claims of their niece Mary to the crown of England, for the papal see declared Elizabeth illegitimate, not recognising the marriage of Henry VIII. with Anne Boleyn. The burning to death of the noble parliamentary councillor Dubourg, whom the Elector Palatine vainly sought to save by an appeal to the University of Heidelberg, was the first indication of that religious bigotry which was to prevail under the influence of the great family of the Guises. Their increasing importance awakened jealousy in the family of the Bourbons, relatives of the ruling house. At the head of the Bourbons were the pusillanimous Antoine, titular King of Navarre, and his brother, the chivalrous Prince of Condé. A similar feeling of enmity was aroused in the noble family of Chatillon, to which the energetic Admiral Coligni belonged. While, therefore, the Guises relied on the Pope and the Catholic part of the nation, their rivals allied themselves with the aspiring citizen class in the south, and became the leaders of the Huguenots.



THE PRINCE DE CONDÉ.

The conspiracy of Amboise, in 1560, which was organised by a Calvinist nobleman named La Renaudie, had for its object the removal of the Guises, the capture by the conspirators of the person of the king, and the reform of the government by the Estates of the realm. The attempt failed; La Renaudie fell in battle, and the other leaders were beheaded. The influence of the Guises increased, and it was only with difficulty that the wise and moderate Chancellor L'Hôpital prevented the introduction of the Spanish Inquisition, by consenting to a severe edict against heretics. A diet, summoned at Orleans, to regulate religious matters and the finances, was used by the Guises for the overthrow of the Bourbons, to whom the conspiracy of Amboise was attributed. Condé and Antoine of Navarre were imprisoned; the former was sentenced to be executed for high treason, the latter was to be kept a prisoner; when, by the sudden death of the king, both the prisoners were released and summoned to honour and power.

The queen-mother, Catharine de Medicis, who had till then had little influence in state matters, now assumed the chief place in the government during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. (1560–74). Antoine, who, as the nearest kinsman to the reigning house, was entitled to the regency, contented

himself with the rank of a controller-general of the kingdom, and president of the council. Enraged at the neglect they had experienced, the Guises, with their niece Mary Stuart, withdrew to Lorraine, whence the young dowager queen soon afterwards started on her disastrous journey to her native Scotland. With a sad heart she bade farewell to the beautiful country where she had experienced so much happiness and pleasure.

The First Three Religious Wars (1562–70).

CATHARINE, who saw that in the dissensions of the party chiefs lay the security of her government, at first maintained a neutral attitude in the religious struggle; although in her heart she always remained zealously faithful to the Catholic Church. She therefore agreed, after the holding of the religious disputation in which Theodore Beza and Peter Martyr maintained the cause of the Bible against the Cardinal of Lorraine and the Jesuit general, Lainez of Poissy (1561), that the former severe religious edict should, at L'Hôpital's suggestion, be mitigated, and that the Calvinists should be permitted to enjoy the privileges of preaching and prayer, and the free exercise of their religion. It seemed as though Protestantism would win the upper hand in France, and at the same time lead to the establishment of freer political institutions. At the diet of Pontoise, held at the same time as the ecclesiastical assembly at Poissy, the temporal States demanded "an elective magistracy, chosen only for a stated time, and then removable; the sale of ecclesiastical property for the use of the king as well as of the nobility and Estates; a clergy deriving their pay from the state exchequer; and the control of the royal power by periodical assemblies of the States every two years."

Alarmed at these indications of a general aspiration for reform, the clergy granted the court, for six years, a subsidy of more than one and a half million livres, and by this means brought it into a more favourable frame of mind. At the same time the three most important members of the Catholic nobility united their powers for mutual resistance; for the Duke de Guise, with the Constable de Montmorenci, the most influential general and counsellor of Henry II., and the Marshal de St. Audré, formed a triumvirate for the preservation of the old faith. Soon they brought over to their side the pusillanimous Antoine of Navarre, to the great grief of his evangelical wife, Jeanne d'Albret, who had introduced the Reformation, by means of Beza, into her dominion of Béarn, the French part of Navarre, and was educating her son Henry in the new faith. By means of assistance from Spain and Rome, the league soon attained such power that it had no longer cause to fear a conflict. The massacre perpetrated in March, 1562, by the Guises and their followers after their return to Paris, upon a congregation of defenceless Calvinists, who were assembled for worship in a barn in the small town of Vassy, was the signal for the first religious war—a war which was followed by seven others, with but slight intervals of peace. The scornful violation of the granted liberty of conscience which was exhibited in this bloody deed of violence called aloud for vengeance.

Soon all France was divided into two hostile camps, which attacked each other with bitter violence. Religious passion and long-fostered hatred resulted in horrible acts of crime, especially in the southern provinces. In Toulouse the fanatical citizens slaughtered four thousand Huguenots, who were endeavouring to leave the town, after laying down their arms in accordance

with the treaty. Wherever the Calvinists were victorious they destroyed the images and decorations of the churches, mocked the sacred relics, and overthew altars and crucifixes. When the opposite party conquered, they burnt the bibles and religious books, slew the evangelical clergy, and compelled those who had been baptised or married by Protestant clergymen to go through the rite again according to the Catholic form. The kingdom was shaken to its very foundation. As a counterbalancing influence to the assistance rendered by Spain and Rome, the Huguenots obtained the support of Elizabeth, and Germany and Switzerland sent mercenary soldiers. The war was disastrous to the party chiefs. Antoine of Navarre died before Rouen; in the indecisive battle of Dreux, Montmorenci was taken prisoner by the Huguenots, Condé by the Catholics, and St. Audré was put to death; and when François de Guise advanced towards Orleans, which the Calvinists had chosen for their head-quarters, he met his death through the hand of an assassin. The



JOAN D'ALBRET AND MARGARET OF NAVARRE.

perpetrator of the murder, Poltrot, unjustly accused the leaders of the Huguenots, Coligni and Beza, who were present in Orléans, of complicity in the crime. Henry de Guise succeeded his father in his offices and his aspirations. The Peace of Amboise, signed in 1563, accorded to the Calvinists liberty of worship in all towns where their religion was already established, with the exception of the capital; moreover, the Huguenots were awarded a place for religious worship in every district, and all the nobility were to have the right of living according to their own religious confession, with their vassals.

The sight of the mutilated crucifixes and objects of veneration, which struck the notice of the queen-regent during a journey which was undertaken by Catharine and the young king shortly after the peace, together with the advice of the Duke of Alva, with whom she had an interview at Bayonne, and the threatening attitude of the Catholic nobility and people, led to a change

of sentiment at the court, full of danger and disadvantage to the religious reformers. The Edict of Amboise was consequently violated in many ways; and the delight of the Catholics at Alva's violent proceedings in the Netherlands might be regarded as a foreshadowing of what was to befal religious innovators in France. This induced the Protestants once more to take up arms, in 1567, for the protection of their threatened faith. Condé's plan of gaining possession of the person of the king and of the queen-mother was not successful, and the project excited the hatred of Catharine to an ungovernable fury; and the battle of St. Denis, though Montmorenci was slain, was unfavour-



TOULOUSE.

able to the Huguenots. As, however, the Catholics had not a skilful general to lead them, they confirmed once more to their adversaries the previous religious edict, and undertook the payment of the German mercenaries, whom Casimir, the Count Palatine, had sent to the assistance of his co-religionists.

But again on this occasion, the conditions of peace were disregarded. Acts of violence on the one side, recrimination on the other, and mutual accusations filled all minds with rancour and discord. The Calvinists held La Rochelle and other Huguenot towns with strong garrisons, and the court allowed the parliament, Jesuits, and monks to carry on their designs unhindered, prevented religious assemblies, and encouraged persecution and assassination. The advice of the Cardinal of Lorraine, supported by the admonitions of the King of Spain and of the Holy Father at Rome, was again of great weight with the council.

L'Hôpital, who opposed severe measures against the Huguenots, and especially their exclusion from state offices, was dismissed from the Council of State, while the conduct of the war was entrusted to Catharine's

favourite son, Henry of Anjou. This prince desired the renewal of the war, in which he hoped to obtain laurels for himself; and, supported by money from the court of Rome, advanced against La Rochelle, which the Huguenots had chosen for their head-quarters and place of refuge. Condé having with difficulty escaped being taken prisoner, in which case the fate of Egmont



SIEGE OF LA ROCHELLE.

would probably have awaited him, once more placed himself at the head of the warlike Calvinists, who gathered together from all sides to La Rochelle (1569), for the defence of liberty of conscience. Elizabeth of England contributed money and warlike stores for the defence, Wolfgang of Deweponts sent bands of mercenary troops; but the superior numbers of the enemy gave

them the victory. The day of Jarnac, in 1569, resulted in the defeat of the Huguenots. Condé was treacherously shot after he had surrendered himself a prisoner. His son—with the youthful Henry of Navarre (Béarn), whose heroic, mother, Jeanne d'Albret, the daughter of Margaret, the clever sister of Francis I., had taken refuge in La Rochelle—now assumed the command of the Huguenot troops; but the soul of the whole confederation was the brave Coligni, who acted as general and counsellor to the prince. A second battle, near Moncontour, in the same year, was indeed once more unfavourable in its result to the reformers; but the dissensions of the opposite party, the queen's dread of the superior power of Spain, and their own steadfastness, led at last to a fortunate conclusion. The Peace of St. Germains, in 1570, granted the Huguenots free exercise of their religion in a more extended sense than before, and they were declared eligible to every office in the state.

The Eve of St. Bartholomew, August 24, 1572.

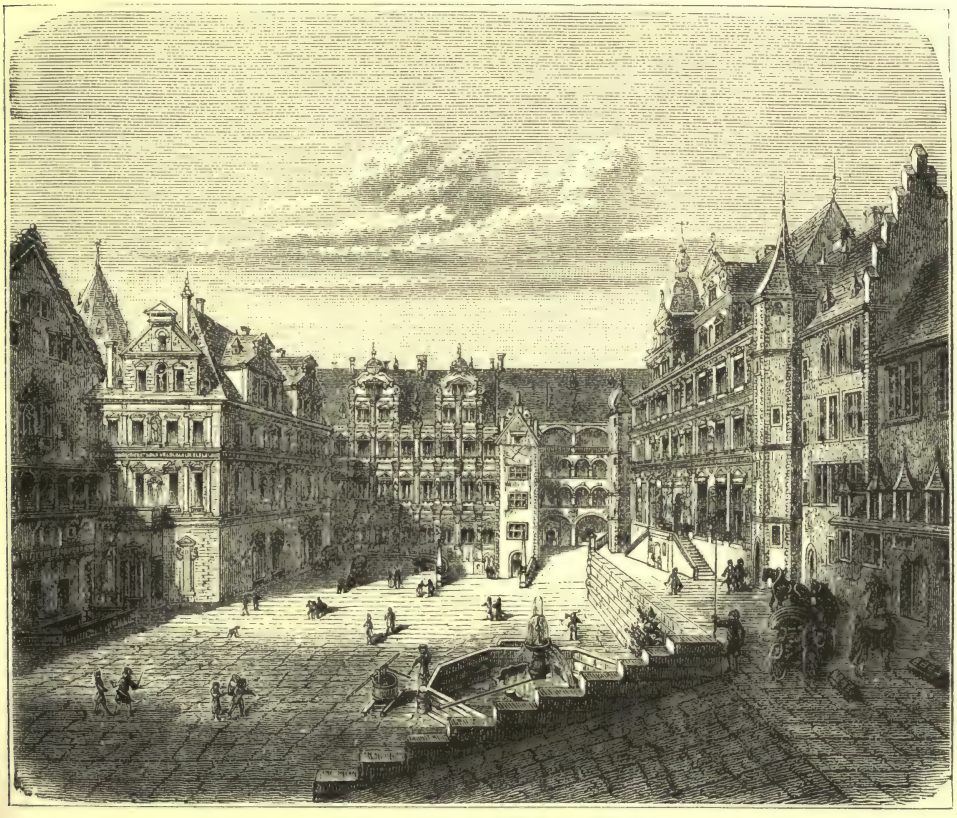


NOTRE DAME IN THE 16TH CENTURY.

CHARLES IX. appeared earnestly to desire peace. And indeed he could scarcely be expected to behold with equanimity all the ties of law and order loosened and public morality shaken by the dangerous casuistry of the Jesuits,—who declared that it was not wrong to break faith with heretics,—the arts of peace and the prosperity of the country lost amid the tumult of arms, and the malicious delight of foreign powers at the suicidal conflict maintained by the great nation. He accordingly sought, by a scrupulous fulfilment of the conditions of peace, to allay the distrust of the Huguenots. He made friendly advances to the Netherlands and to the Queen of England. He summoned Coligni to the court. He took into serious consideration the various reasons for commencing a war with Spain for the benefit of the Netherlands; and he seized every opportunity for showing favour to the leaders of the Huguenots. With the view of uniting both religious parties by a firm bond, he brought about the marriage of his sister, Margaret of Valois, with the Bourbon, Henry of Béarn, the chief of the Huguenots. But the queen-mother, Catharine of Medicis, and the Duke of Anjou, did not share the king's views. They hated Admiral Coligni, and feared that a war with Spain would be fraught with danger to France and to the Catholic Church. Catharine acted up to the precept of her family, "that for the maintenance of power every action is permissible." Faithful to the teaching which Alva had given her, and which he himself had applied in the Netherlands with what

appeared like success, she sought, in conjunction with the Guises, to remove the leaders of the reformers, that the bands, deprived of their chiefs, might the more easily be overpowered. Jeanne d'Albret, the zealous follower of Calvin and Beza, died shortly before the marriage of her son, in 1572, not without a suspicion of poison. A plot was organised for the murder of Coligni by a hired assassin; but the bullet fired at him only shattered his arm; exposure and ignominy threatened the conspirators; therefore they considered it advisable to project a fresh plan of assassination.

Just at this time a suitable opportunity was afforded by the marriage of Henry of Béarn and Margaret of Valois; many prominent Huguenots had hastened to the capital to be present at the ceremony. Catharine and the



THE CASTLE OF HEIDELBERG.

Guises concocted the plan of a terrible massacre to be perpetrated on the eve of St. Bartholomew; a hideous crime which turned the wedding celebration of Henry and Margaret into a marriage of blood. At midnight, when the alarm-bell of St. Germain l'Auxerrois gave the signal, armed bands of murderers suddenly surprised and attacked the defenceless Calvinists. The venerable hero, Coligni, was the first victim; he was attacked in his chamber, and without regard for his grey hairs, the hired ruffians, it is said, wounded him mortally, and then hurled him, still breathing, from the window. He endeavoured with his left arm to cling to one of the pillars of a window; but with renewed blows they thrust him out into the courtyard, where Guise and Angoulême were waiting to receive the victim, who expired a few moments

after his fall. Then the bands of murderers rushed tumultuously through every quarter of the town, filling the houses and streets with blood, and strewing corpses around, laughing to scorn feeling, humanity, and justice. For three days the slaughter lasted. It was imitated in several towns; and according to the most moderate calculation 25,000 Huguenots must have perished at that fearful time. The king, who had been informed of the plan shortly before it was carried into effect, followed the savage impulses and innate cruelty of his nature, and himself assisted in the work by shooting down the fugitives with his own hand. Not content with the murder of the more important Huguenot leaders, to which the original design appears to have been limited, the murderers extended the massacre to all supporters of the reformed faith; and when, after the crime had been accomplished the Guises were pointed out as its authors by the public voice, and were summoned to answer for the deed, Charles took on himself the whole burden of the transaction, and excused the massacre on the untenable plea of the existence of a conspiracy.

Henry III.

TWO years after the massacre of St. Bartholomew, Charles IX. died, in March, 1574, in the twenty-fourth year of his age, tortured by pangs of conscience and terrified by evil dreams. His brother Henry (1574–89), previously Duke of Anjou, and for a year king elect of Poland, secretly escaped from the wild region of the Vistula to pass through Italy to France, where a nobler crown and a more pleasurable capital awaited him. After he became king of France Henry III. showed no trace of his former energy. Effeminacy, love of pleasure, and vanity excluded all serious thoughts from his mind. Shut up in the interior of his palace with his favourites and lap-dogs, he forgot his kingdom and the storms and troubles that agitated it; and if remorse seized him at times for his sinful life, he sought consolation in acts of superstitious devotion, in pilgrimages, and processions, penances and self-castigation. The religious peace which was extorted from him, sword in hand, soon after his accession, by the discontented party of the Politicians, and their allies the Huguenots, destroyed the fruits of all former efforts, and excited the anger of the Catholics. Under the guidance of Henry of Guise, and in conjunction with Philip II., they accordingly united in forming a Holy League, in 1576, for the protection of their menaced religion. By the efforts of zealots, in the persons of priests, monks, and Jesuits, many adherents were gained for the league. Alarmed at this agitation, the weak and faithless king opened negotiations with the Catholic zealots, declared himself the head of the League, and caused the privileges guaranteed by the religious peace to be curtailed. Though this step led to a renewal of the war, it at the same time broke the power of the League, whose secret object, besides the extermination of Calvinism, had been to bring about a limitation of the royal power or a change of dynasty. Dreading the effects of the widespread party hatreds, Henry sought to put an end to the war as soon as possible by offering fair conditions. This object was attained in the Peace of Poitiers, in 1577, in which the Huguenots obtained the privilege of free exercise of their religion, were declared eligible to all offices in the state, and mixed parliamentary assemblies were instituted, with some limitations.

The League.

AFTER some years of uncertain peace, Francis, Duke of Anjou, the last surviving brother of the childless king, died, and thus, in 1584, the Bourbon, Henry of Navarre, became the heir to the throne. Thereupon

the Duke of Guise summoned the League to renewed life and action. The prospect of the succession of a Protestant king terrified Catholic France, and gave greater emphasis to the whisperings of priests and the intrigues of Jesuits. The persecutions of Catholics in England, which were painted in the most repulsive colours, were held up as a representation of the dangers which might overtake the French nation. Where exhortations from the pulpit and the confessional did not suffice, money, of which there was no lack since Philip II. had joined the League, was called into aid. The nobility, who had been neglected by the court, and superseded by low-born favourites, eagerly joined together in a league, which not only aimed at the preservation of the Catholic faith, but at the abolition of old abuses, and the enrichment of the nobility by means of the confiscated property of the Huguenots. In a short time, under the guidance of the clever and energetic Henry of Guise,



PROCESSION OF THE LEAGUE.

the League became a terrible power. Henry of Navarre was placed under a ban by Pope Sixtus V., and was declared incapable of succeeding to the throne; the weak and despicable king of France was compelled to revoke all his former treaties with the Huguenots, to declare for the extermination of heresy, and to ratify all the regulations of the League. Once more France was torn by civil strife in a new conflict, known as the "war of the three Henries," of Valois, Guise, and Navarre; and in spite of the bravery with which the Calvinists combated for the rights of their leader and their own liberty of conscience, the superior numbers of their opponents gave the victory to the League. Emboldened by his triumph, and strong in the favour of the people, who greeted him as a second Gideon, the Duke, Henry of Guise, now aspired to the throne itself, to which he considered he had more ancient claims—reputing himself a descendant of the Carlovingians—than the reigning family.

The Barricades.

IN the year 1588 a conspiracy was set on foot in Paris for deposing and imprisoning the king. Warned of the threatened danger, Henry sought to protect himself by obtaining troops of mercenaries or "Swiss," which produced consternation among the conspirators. To inspire his followers with fresh courage and energy, the duke, in spite of the king's prohibition, set out for Paris, where in a short time thirty thousand allies gathered round him. The rumour that all the leaders of the League were to be put to death increased the prevailing excitement to such a degree, that when the arrival of fresh troops appeared to confirm their fears, the people rose in a body, erected barricades in the streets and on the bridges, captured the scattered bodies of reinforcing troops, and slaughtered a number of them on the "day of the barricades," on the twelfth of May, 1588. The king escaped in terror to Chartres, and abandoned the capital to his opponent, who now filled the chief offices with reliable supporters of his own, secured the Bastille and other fortified buildings, and then compelled the king to grant him the most absolute command over all the armies. These concessions did not, however, lead to a reconciliation. At an assembly at Blois, in which the Guise party were in the ascendant, it was not only suggested that the Bourbons should be driven from the throne and Calvinism utterly rooted out, but also that the government should be changed, the royal revenues curtailed, and the chief power placed in the hands of the Guises. Then Henry ventured on a bold step. He caused the Duke of Guise and his brother, Cardinal Louis, to be murdered; and he threw the most influential leaders of their party into prison. Gloomy forebodings as to the consequences of this act hastened the death of the queen-mother, Catharine de Medicis, who died in January, 1589. On her guilty head is accumulated the weight of all the misery of this disastrous period.

Death of Henry III.



SOLDIER IN GOLDEN ARMOUR.

THE murder of the two Guises caused a fearful excitement throughout the kingdom, and the general cry was for revenge on the degenerate king who had overthrown the pillars of the Catholic faith. Paris was in a state of feverish tumult; fanatical public orators kept the excitable inhabitants in constant agitation. Guise's brother, Charles, Duke of Mayenne, an ambitious, energetic man, placed himself at the head of the League and of the allied troops; obedience to the king was renounced; in a large part of the kingdom the power passed from the royal officials to the Council of Forty instituted by the League, and in Paris to the democratic Council of Sixteen, who assumed the administration of civil affairs. In vain did Henry III. attempt to lull the storm and pacify the public mind. Excommunicated by the Pope, deserted by his friends, despised by his people, and without money or troops, no other resource was left open



ENTERTAINMENT AT THE COURT OF HENRY III. OF FRANCE.

to him but an alliance with Henry of Navarre and the Huguenots. Once more civil war raged more fiercely than ever; but fortune was against the League. Henry was already besieging Paris, and threatening to reduce the faithless town to a heap of ashes, when a fanatical Dominican monk, Jacques Clement, revenged the murder of the Guises by stabbing the king with a dagger. It was on the 1st August, 1559, that the last of the Valois kings died by the hand of an assassin. On his death-bed Henry appointed as his successor Henry of Navarre and Béarn, who was indeed the next heir to the throne; for he was a direct descendant of the fourth son of Louis IX.



POPE HADRIAN VI.

Henry IV. (1589-1610).



HENRY IV. OF FRANCE.

THE new king found it necessary to engage in a severe struggle before he could consider the great prize, the royal crown of France, as really his own. The members of the League, led by Mayenne, and supported by the Spanish troops of the warlike Parma, put forth their utmost strength in bitter and uncompromising resistance to the Calvinist heir to the throne. In their religious animosity, they were ready sooner to accept a king from the hand of Philip II., and to place themselves under the protectorship of Spain, than quietly endure a heretic on the throne, however much they admired his chivalrous qualities. After his brilliant victory over Mayenne and the League, in the battle of Ivry, in 1590, Henry besieged Paris. The unfortunate inhabitants were compelled to suffer all the horrors of famine and warfare. Indeed, the kind heart of the king was touched by their distress, and it is told how he allowed sacks of corn to be conveyed into the town for the solace of the starving citizens, at the time when they were still maintaining the defence against him. The number of his enemies, however, increased, and whole provinces threatened to separate from the kingdom, and win an independent position under native princes. The king was therefore at last convinced that he would never obtain the peaceful possession of the French throne by battles and victories, and feeling "that the crown of France was worth a mass," he made submission to the Catholic Church in July, 1593, at the Cathedral of St. Denis, and was received into her communion. He thus broke the strength of the League. Paris now opened its gates, and received the peacemaker with delight; the heads of the League hastened to conciliate him, the Pope withdrew the ban, and Philip II., whose influence on European affairs had greatly decreased, consented to the Peace of Vervins, in 1598.

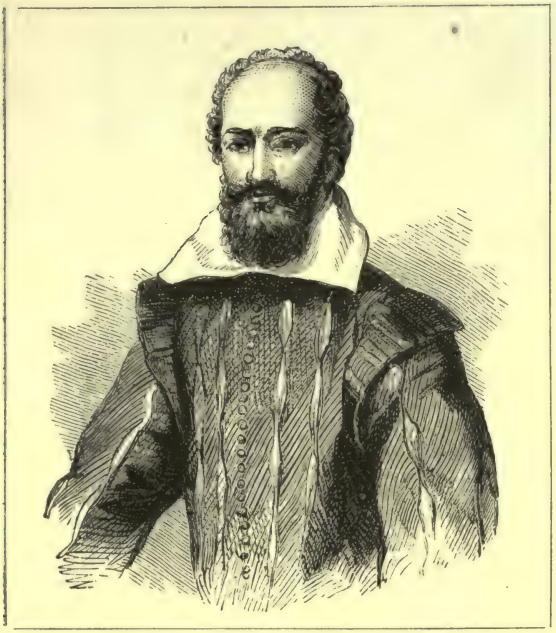
After peace had been restored, both at home and abroad, Henry inaugurated his reign by the Edict of Nantes (April, 1598), granting his former Protestant allies religious toleration, full civil rights, and other favours. It cost him great pains and many sacrifices to obtain the consent of the various classes to this great and important measure.

The reign of Henry IV. proved a blessing to the country. The nation rejoiced in the long-desired peace under a prince who possessed a sympathetic heart for the sorrows and joys of his people, whose truly French character and amiable temper won the love of his people, while his warlike fame flattered the national vanity. Consequently the attempts of discon-



HENRY IV. HAS MERCY ON STARVING PARIS.

tented nobles to renew the civil war were rendered fruitless, and their leader, the brave and chivalrous Biron, paid for his turbulent disaffection with his life.

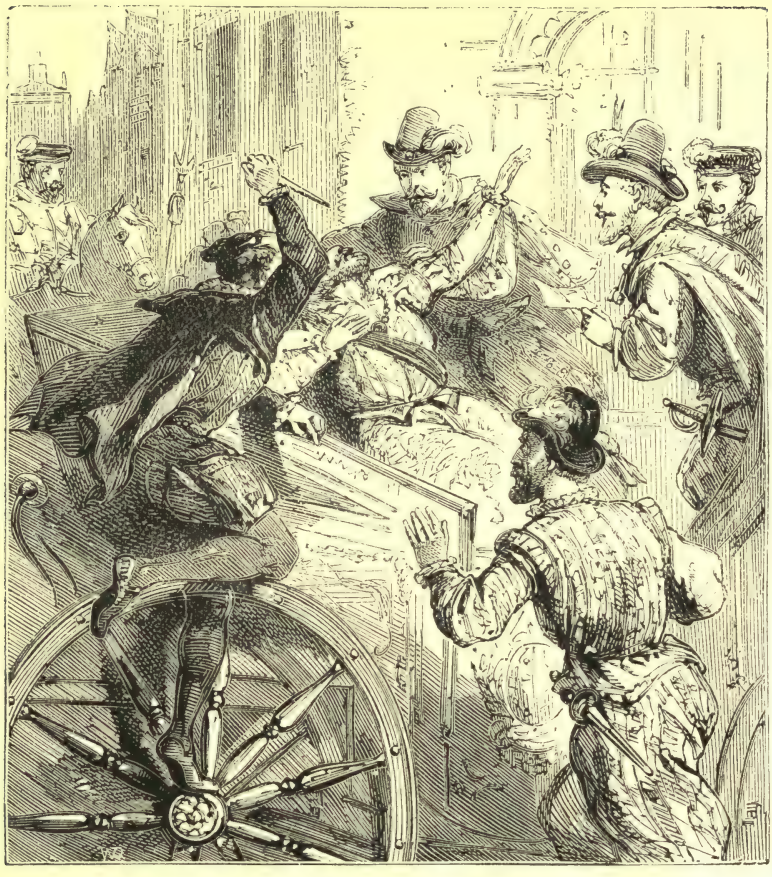


MAXIMILIAN DUC DE SULLY.



MARIE DE MEDICIS.

Through the wise control of the finances exercised by Maximilian de Béthune, Duke of Sully, Henry's faithful comrade in times of distress, the state exchequer was always full, while at the same time the people had no cause to complain of oppressive taxation; and agriculture, trade, and commerce flourished vigorously. Even Henry's special weakness, his exceeding susceptibility to the charms of women, as seen in the case of the beautiful Gabrielle d'Estrées, was a pardonable failing in the eyes of the French, and Sully earnestly opposed any exercise of political power on the part of his master's favourites. The intended marriage of the king with the beautiful Gabrielle was prevented by her sudden death. Soon afterwards, with the consent of the Pope, who had declared his first marriage with Marguerite of Valois null and void, Henry, in 1599, espoused Marie de Medicis as his second wife. But fanaticism was only slumbering, and Henry's indulgent temper towards the heretics aroused it and provoked an outburst. His enlightened political view already contemplated the great scheme of establishing a Christian empire, with equality of rights for the three Confessions, in conjunction with the German Union and other European powers, and of thus putting an end to the supremacy of the house of Hapsburg, when he fell under the dagger of the assassin Ravaillac; that miserable fanatic stabbed the



MURDER OF HENRY IV. OF FRANCE.

king as he was driving through Paris, May 14, 1610. "When God is for us, who can resist us?" exultingly exclaimed the Cardinal of Toledo on receiving the news of the king's death. This exclamation sufficiently showed the hatred of the Spaniards towards Henry of Navarre and his policy of a great reformation that should be cemented by mutual tolerance and goodwill.



LONDON IN THE DAYS OF ELIZABETH.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

ELIZABETH'S CHARACTER AND GOVERNMENT.—MARY STUART IN SCOTLAND.—RIZZIO, DARNLEY, BOTHWELL.—BATTLE OF LANGSIDE.—MARY IN ENGLAND.—HER LONG IMPRISONMENT.—THE DUKE OF NORFOLK.—CONSPIRACIES.—BABINGTON'S PLOT.—EXECUTION OF MARY.—EXCITEMENT ON THE CONTINENT.—CLOSE OF ELIZABETH'S REIGN.—ESSEX: HIS DISGRACE AND EXECUTION.—DEATH OF THE QUEEN, 1603.

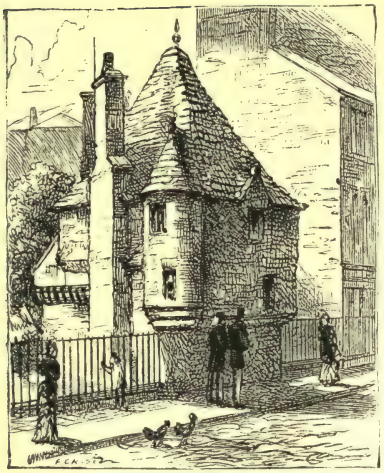
CHARACTER AND POLICY OF ELIZABETH.



OUTER GATE OF THE TOWER.

ELIZABETH'S character had been formed in the school of adversity during the reign of her gloomy sister Mary. She possessed her father's arrogant temper, and wielded the sceptre with sternness and severity; but she did not sacrifice, like that truculent monarch, the welfare of the state to her passions and caprices. She imposed restrictions on the political and religious liberty of her people, but acted in accordance with a fixed and politic principle, and had a respect for justice. Accustomed at an early age to serious study and meditation, she brought with her to the throne a cultured mind, an acute and ready understanding, of which she gave evidence both in the choice of her counsellors, among whom was the wise Cecil, Lord Burleigh, and in her policy; but the habit of dissimulation which she had practised even in her youth, caused her to find pleasure in the tortuous paths of cunning and falsehood, and in a disingenuous statecraft. The virtue of frugality, which she had learnt in her earlier days, she carried to an extreme parsimony, which in her later years increased almost to avarice. Even her adversaries have not denied that she possessed great talents for government, and the prosperity of England in trade, maritime commerce, agriculture, manufactures, art, and literature, which she founded, proves how truly she had at heart the welfare of the state.

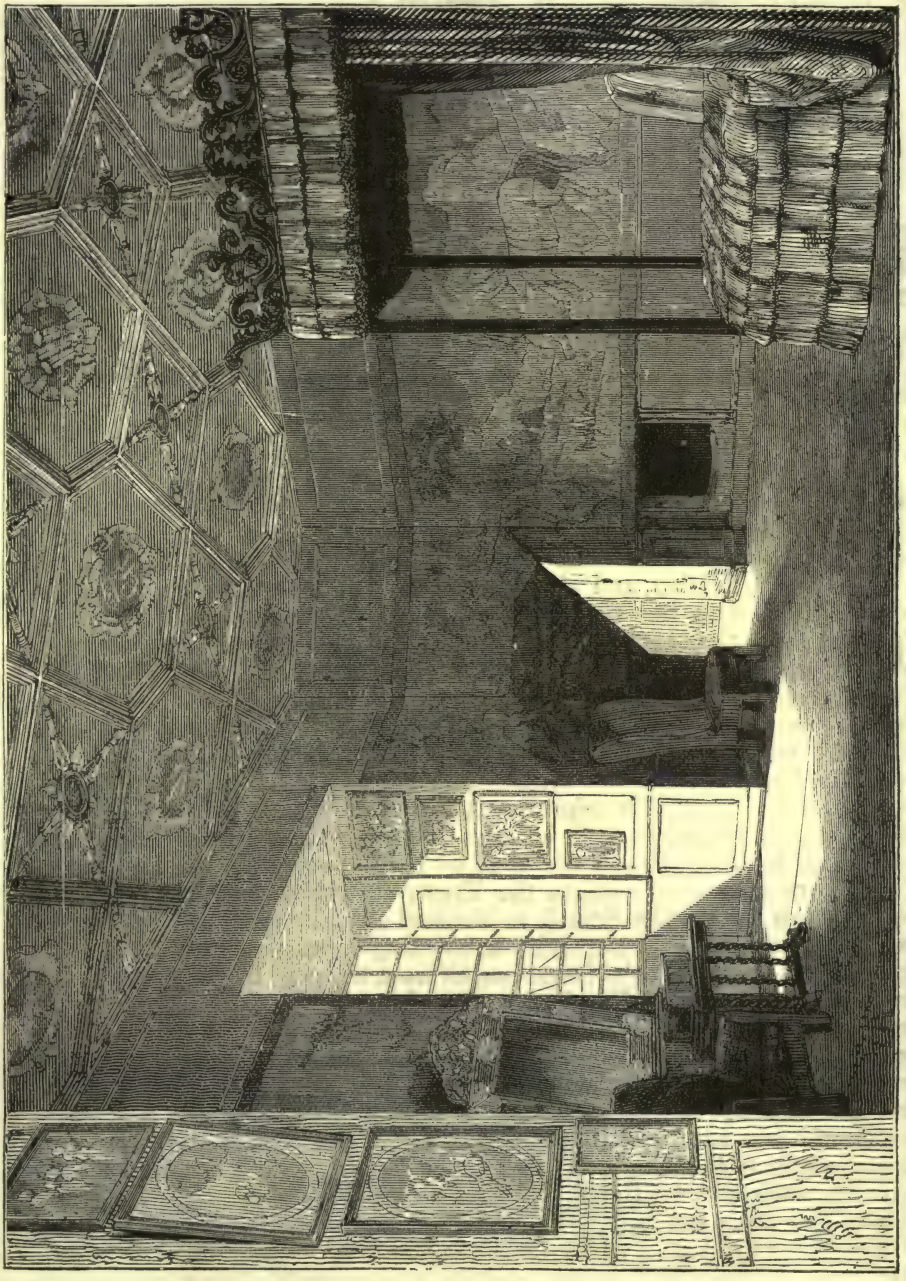
Mary Stuart in Scotland.



QUEEN MARY'S BATH, EDINBURGH.

THE charming queen who in 1560, two years after Elizabeth's accession to the throne, had exchanged the fair and smiling realm of France for her uncongenial and unfamiliar Scottish home, was in her character, temperament, surroundings, and destiny, a complete contrast to her neighbour and rival. While Elizabeth, from the hard circumstances of her youth, had been rendered somewhat unamiable, grave, false, and envious, the beautiful Mary, after a youth passed in happiness and pleasure, brought with her to the throne of Scotland an affectionate, cheerful temper, frank and cordial manners, and a lively disposition; and while Elizabeth's hopes and destiny in life had been from the first interwoven with Protestantism, Mary, attracted by her imaginative and artistic nature to Catholicism, had been identified by her own and her family interests with the Papacy. Elizabeth elevated her form of religion into an honourable and secure position in the nation, and thus united the interest of the people with her own. Mary, with her Catholic creed, stood alone among a rude people, who despised the Mass as idolatry, and whose sacrilegious hands did not even respect the sanctity of the queen's private chapel; and when she desired to introduce at her court the cheerful, gay pastimes and pleasures, and the easy manners of the French, and by her secret alliance with Rome and with her uncles betrayed the aspiration and wish of her heart for a restoration of popery, she was menaced by the severe and ascetic John Knox, who, like the prophets who threatened the idolatrous kings of Israel, thundered his exhortations in her ears both from the pulpit and in the palace, untouched by her tears and unmoved by her indignant protestations.

As Mary refused to confirm the Treaty of Edinburgh (1560), which had been drawn up by the Scotch nobles and the English queen, by which she would have surrendered her claim to the English crown, and ratified the Reformation in Scotland, she found herself from the very beginning of her reign in a position hostile to Elizabeth and to her own people, who sympathized with England. This hostile condition of things, nevertheless, became to some degree modified in course of time, and Mary even applied to the English queen for advice in the important question of the choice of a second husband; but the false and equivocal behaviour of Elizabeth, who first proposed one suitor and then another, and afterwards refused her consent and grew violently angry when at last Mary, in 1565, gave her hand to her cousin, the young Scottish noble, Lord Darnley, produced a renewal of ill-feeling. The marriage proved an unhappy one. The whole delight of the vain and thoughtless husband was in hunting and feasting; and at last the queen became indignant, was entirely estranged from him, and devoted herself to the singer, Rizzio, of Turin, who acted as her agent in her correspondence with the Guises and the Pope. Stung by jealousy and by a sense of wounded honour, Darnley entered



QUEEN MARY'S BEDCHAMBER AT HOLYROOD PALACE.

into a conspiracy with some nobles who were envious of the favour Rizzio enjoyed, and apprehensive of the overthrow of the Reformed Church; and at last Mary's presumptuous favourite was assassinated before the eyes of his mistress, being despatched with many wounds by the conspirators, in her own apartments, in the year 1566.

This horrible deed filled the heart of the queen with bitter anger towards her husband, of whose complicity in the crime she felt convinced in spite of his denial. She became even more estranged from him, contemplated the idea of a separation, and bestowed her favour on a Scottish noble, the Earl of Bothwell, who had recently returned from France. Not till Darnley was attacked by a severe illness did her anger seem to abate; then she appeared reconciled to him. She nursed him with great solicitude in an isolated country house, the Kirk of Field, near Edinburgh. But on the night of the 10th of February, 1567, when Mary was away, the neighbourhood was alarmed by a terrible explosion. The country house of the king had been blown up; and Darnley's corpse was found in an adjacent meadow, with evident marks of suffocation. Public opinion pointed to Bothwell as the perpetrator of the crime, and three months later this very man had become Mary's husband. He was declared innocent by a hastily summoned tribunal, and after putting away his wife, to enable him to contract a fresh marriage, he waylaid the queen on a journey, carried her off, apparently by force, and then obtained her hand. It was scarcely to be marvelled at that she was accused of complicity in Bothwell's crime. Indignant at this criminal marriage, the Scottish nobility took up arms against her. After suffering defeat on the battlefield, Bothwell escaped, but Mary was carried in triumph to Edinburgh, amid the curses of the people, and was shortly afterwards imprisoned in the island fortress of Loch Leven, where she was compelled to sign an abdication of the throne, and to make over the government to her half-brother Murray, who was to act as regent during the minority of her son, James VI. Mary made her escape from prison through the help of the Hamilton family, and retracted her abdication; but being defeated shortly afterwards in the battle of Langside, in 1568, she set out in great haste for England, to implore Elizabeth's aid and protection.



JOHN KNOX'S HOUSE AT EDINBURGH.

MARY IN ENGLAND.—THE ARMADA.



CECIL, LORD BURLEIGH.

THE English queen refused to grant her Scottish sister an interview until Mary should have cleared herself of the terrible accusation of the murder of her husband. The Queen of Scots, on the other hand, refused, as an independent monarch, to submit to an investigation by a foreign court of justice,—Murray the regent, her accuser, also hesitated to acknowledge the supremacy of England implied in accepting the arbitration, and she was accordingly detained a prisoner in England. But her presence was a constant source of danger to Elizabeth. The Duke of Norfolk aspired to the hand of the captive queen; he conspired to set her at liberty, and lost, in consequence, first his liberty and ultimately his life, in 1572. In the northern counties the ancient Church still numbered many adherents, and the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland raised the banner of insurrection, to compel their queen to set Mary at liberty and declare her the successor to the throne. They, at the same time, proclaimed the restoration of the Catholic Church, and summoned foreign powers to their aid. But their scheme was frustrated, and Northumberland, given up by the Scotch as a fugitive, died on the scaffold (1569). Mary was suspected of being an accomplice in this conspiracy; and the unsettled condition of Scotland—where Murray fell a victim to the vengeance of the Hamiltons, his successor, Darnley's father, was slain, and the last regent, Morton, perished on the scaffold—appeared to render her continued imprisonment a matter of necessity. She could expect no help from her son James, who had learned to look upon her as an idolatrous woman, accused of the death of his father. The murder of the Prince of Orange, the continual plots and intrigues of the Jesuits, and the horrible religious wars on the Continent, kept the English in constant terror of conspiracies. It needed but a slight occasion to bring about the death of Mary, whose fortress-prison was regarded as the centre of all conspiracies. This occasion was afforded by the conspiracy of Babington and his accomplices, who had conceived the design of murdering Elizabeth and placing Mary on the throne of England. The project was discovered; the conspirators died on the scaffold, and when it was proved on investigation that Mary had been privy to the scheme, she also was declared guilty and condemned to death. Elizabeth was now entreated by Parliament, for the preservation of religion, the security of the kingdom, and the safety of her own person, to allow justice to take its course. But though she desired the death

of her rival and enemy, she dreaded the consequences the captive queen's execution might bring. At last the conflict in Elizabeth's mind was decided; she signed the death-warrant, and Burleigh caused it to be carried out without delay. On the 8th of February, 1587, Mary was beheaded, in the forty-fifth year of her age and the nineteenth of her imprisonment, at Fotheringhay Castle, in Northamptonshire. But Elizabeth affected great indignation, and declared that her ministers had caused the sentence of death to be carried out in defiance of her orders; and she punished her secretary Davison with heavy fine and imprisonment for having allowed the death-warrant to pass out of his hands.



THE LAST MOMENTS OF MARY STUART.

Pope Sixtus V. and Philip II. were filled with horror at the news of Mary's death. The Pope denounced the heretical queen as an excommunicated outlaw, entrusted the King of Spain with the duty of conquering England, and promised him considerable pecuniary aid in the enterprise. Philip had sufficient reasons for revenge; Elizabeth had refused his hand on her accession to the throne, had sent aid to the revolted Netherlands, and had captured his trading vessels; and the moment when all Catholics were indignant at the Scottish queen's death seemed a favourable time to attempt the conquest of England and the foundation of a Catholic Empire in the West of Europe. But the destruction of the Armada raised the renown of

England. The whole country was thrilled with a strong impulse of patriotic enthusiasm. Admiral Howard of Effingham, the destroyer of the Armada, Sir Francis Drake, the renowned sailor who had circumnavigated the world, and other heroes who had made the name of England famous on the waves, discovered the element on which England's power and greatness might be best established. Trade and navigation—the sinews of the nation—from that time forward made rapid progress. Fugitives from Flanders helped to establish the important stocking manufacture; and the incorporation of the East India Company in 1600, and the acquisition of Virginia in North America, laid the foundation of the colonial system of England. Sir Walter Raleigh, "the remote and original ancestor of the United States of America," pointed out the transatlantic unions and settlements, and the elevation of industry, as the basis of the wealth and power of the nation. Protestantism and naval power had passed through their period of probation at the same time. A retrograde step was now impossible.



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.



FOTHERINGHAY CASTLE.



QUEEN ELIZABETH. (*From a Painting by Zucchero.*)

Elizabeth's Death.

THE Virgin Queen could not reconcile herself to the idea of sharing the government with a husband; she rejected all her suitors, here and there not without great reluctance, as in the case of Duke Francis of Anjou, the brother of Henry III. of France,—and suffered no interference of Parliament in the affairs of her household. Nevertheless, two English nobles, the Earl of Leicester, and after him his step-son, the chivalrous Essex, long enjoyed her especial favour. Leicester was a finished courtier, but a man of mediocre talents as a statesman and general, and of no elevation of sentiment or character. Essex was more worthy of the favour of the queen, who took pleasure in his frank, straightforward character; but his fortunate star paled in Ireland. That island, which had been conquered for centuries, but had never been entirely in the possession of England, had been constituted a kingdom by Henry VIII., and had been made subject to the religious laws of England. But the Reformation was only recognised in the eastern portion of the island, the Irish, as a rule, remaining faithful to the old religion

and to their old clergy. Elizabeth endeavoured to bring Ireland into more complete dependence under the English crown, and to effect a transformation both in Church and State. This attempt was resisted by the Earl of Tyrone, a warlike Irish chief, who, trusting to the Catholic population and expecting to receive assistance from Spain and Rome, demanded protection for the ancient faith. Essex requested and obtained the governorship of Ireland; but instead of attacking Tyrone, he concluded with him a disgraceful treaty, equally disadvantageous to the English government and to the cause of Protestantism. In consequence of this, Essex fell into disfavour with the queen; and after an unsuccessful conspiracy with the object of removing the queen's counsellors from about her, and proclaiming the succession of James I. of Scotland, he attempted an insurrection, and was imprisoned and executed in the Tower in 1601. Grief at the death of her favourite, and at the discovery that her own servants and attendants, and her trusted counsellor, the younger Cecil (Burleigh) were in secret treaty with the King of Scotland, and also that the affection of her people had cooled towards her since the execution of Essex, filled the last years of the queen's life with bitterness. At length her spirits gave way entirely; she sat sullenly on the ground, with her eyes cast downwards and her fingers in her mouth, refusing counsel and consolation, till death put an end to her sorrows in the seventieth year of her age, on the 24th of March, 1603. The jealously guarded secret of the succession to the throne was only divulged by her at the last moment, when she declared that she would be followed by no "rascal"; but that a king should be her successor—namely, James of Scotland, the son of the unhappy queen who had perished at Fotheringhay.



ROBERT DEVEREUX, EARL OF ESSEX



CULTURE AND LEARNED MEN.

FROM THE REFORMATION TO LOUIS XIV.

ASTRONOMERS: COPERNICUS, TYCHO BRAHE, KEPLER, GALILEO, NEWTON.—HISTORICAL WRITERS: SLEIDAN, SECKENDORF, GROTIUS, RALEIGH.—PHILOSOPHIC WRITERS: ITALY—GIORDANO BRUNO, ETC. MICHEL DE MONTAIGNE, FRANCIS BACON, HOBBES, DESCARTES, SPINOZA.—ITALIAN PROSE AND POETRY: MACHIAVELLI, DAVILA, ARIOSTO, VITTORIA COLONNA, TASSO. SPAIN—CERVANTES, LOPE DE VEGA, CALDERON. PORTUGAL—CAMOENS. FRANCE—RABELAIS, MAROT, MARGUERITE DE NAVARRE. ENGLAND—CHAUCER; THE DRAMA: SHAKESPEARE; SPENSER, MILTON, DRYDEN, BUTLER, ETC. GERMANY—HANS SACHS, FISCHART, LUTHER, ETC.



NICHOLAS COPERNICUS.

THE GREAT ASTRONOMERS.

THE fifteenth century witnessed an entirely new development of astronomy as a science. The improbability of the old Ptolemaic conception of the universe had long been recognised by men of serious thought; but Nicholas Copernicus of Thorn (1473–1543), Canon of Frauenberg, was the first who had the courage and the creative genius decisively to throw off the old preconceived opinions, and to substitute a new and fruitful conception for the old theory that had been proved untenable. After a course of deep

study and close observation of the heavenly bodies, he arrived at the conclusion that the sun is the central point of the planetary system, and revolves on its axis; while the earth, like the other planets, not only moves round its axis, but also round the sun. His theories were to some extent contradicted by the great Danish astronomer, Tycho de Brahe (1546–1601), who could not bring himself to the belief that the earth moved; and it remained for Johann Kepler (1571–1631), the needy assistant of De Brahe, to carry out the teachings of Copernicus, and further develop them by the results of his own investigations. Kepler's merits attracted the attention of the Emperor Rudolf of Germany, who accorded to the astronomer a useful though not very munificent patronage. In the three great laws concerning the movements of the heavenly



JOHANN KEPLER, THE ASTRONOMER, AND THE EMPEROR RUDOLF II.

bodies, promulgated and established by Kepler, we have the foundation of that theory of gravitation afterwards demonstrated by Newton, and with which the name of the great English astronomer will be always associated.

Kepler's great contemporary, Galileo of Pisa (1564–1642), also distinguished himself, and obtained immortal fame by his discoveries in the province of mechanics and physics. With the help of the telescope, which had shortly before been invented in Holland, he discovered the satellites of Jupiter and other heavenly bodies, whose existence had not till then been suspected. But by his declaration that it was the earth that moved, and not the sun, he gave offence to the upholders of the old theory, and in particular excited the anger of the strict clerical party, who declared the Copernican theory to be heretical

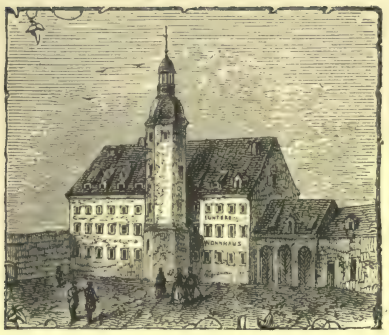
and opposed to the teachings of Holy Scripture. He was ultimately compelled to renounce his views before a tribunal of the Inquisition. His work, in which he had set forth his discoveries, was prohibited, and he himself was compelled for a time to languish in the cells of the Inquisition. There he contracted an affection of the eyes, which afterwards ended in complete blindness. In spite of the enforced recantation he remained steadfast in his opinion; and chafing at the spiritual intolerance to which he had been subjected, he is said, after reading his recantation, to have uttered aside: "*E pur si muove!*" "But it moves, for all that!"



EARLY GEOGRAPHY: MAP OF AFRICA, DRAWN IN 1500.

What Kepler and Galileo had left unfinished was brought to a completion by the great English philosopher, Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1727. By his great discovery of gravitation, the true physical force or active power that directs the motions of the planets was elucidated, and the Copernican system and the correctness of the laws of Kepler were thus confirmed in their smallest particulars.

Historical Writers.

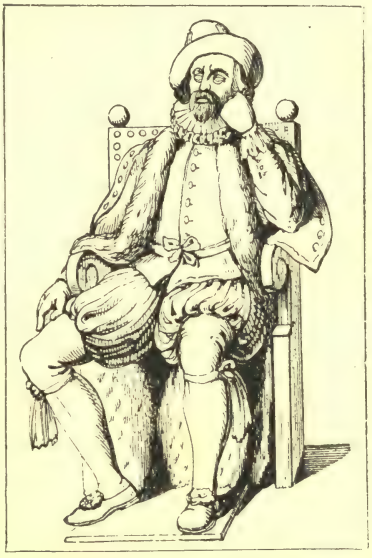


THE history of the Reformation from the time of Luther till the resignation of Charles V. found an excellent chronicler in the person of Johann Sleidan (1506–56), a student of law at Strasburg, and the historian of the Smalkaldic League; and another, a century later, in the learned statesman Seckendorf, who died in 1692. On the philosophy of government and the rights of nations, the French author, Jean Bodin (1530–1596), the learned Netherlander, Hugo de Groot, or Grotius (1583–1645), and the German, Samuel Puffendorf (1632–1694), were the best writers. The wars of liberty in the Netherlands were described by the above-named Hugo Grotius, who took the style and form of Tacitus as his model. Later again, one of the greatest geniuses of the age of Elizabeth, the sagacious and far-seeing Sir Walter Raleigh (1552–1618), who was renowned as a soldier, as the founder of the settlements in North America, and as the discoverer of distant countries, wrote the first history of the world in his own language, during a fifteen years' imprisonment, which had befallen him for participation in a conspiracy against James I. After having been conditionally released, he ultimately died on the scaffold a sacrifice to the perfidy of the time-serving James I., who caused him to be put to death on the sentence pronounced many years before, to please the Spanish Court; as the marriage of Prince Charles with the Infanta of Spain was at that time in contemplation.



Philosophy.—New Systems.

ITALY, the land of mental activity and scientific culture, was rich in new philosophical ideas and conceptions, but the superficial vivacity of the people caused philosophy as well as theology to assume a vague, obscure, and visionary character. Giordano Bruno, who died in 1600, a highly gifted man, who had escaped from the Dominican order, after attempting to hold philosophical lectures at Padua, was given up by the Venetians to the Inquisition, and ultimately burnt to death at Rome. His doctrine that the universe, as the created nature, is one with the divinity, or the creative force, is an ingeniously framed and powerfully enunciated revival of the old Hellenic Pantheism. This variety of old and new systems led some minds, accustomed to quiet, independent thinking, to scepticism. The most famous amongst such thinkers was the intellectual and highly cultured Frenchman, Michel de Montaigne, who died in 1592. This agreeable writer, in the philosophy laid down in his essays, touched not so much on the high problems of humanity, but regarded the world from a supreme elevation, and sought to instil into the mind sentiments of peace and equanimity.



MONUMENT OF FRANCIS BACON.

After such immense strides had been taken in different departments of thought, while, in the meantime, mathematics, astronomy, natural science and philosophy had also been developed, there was needed a practical and incisive mind to penetrate through the confusion which prevailed, and to bring the whole range of knowledge into systematic unity and logical order. This great and necessary task was accomplished by Francis Bacon, Lord Verulam (1561–1626), a man of distinguished talents though not of spotless character, though Pope's celebrated line, in which he is designated, "The wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind," is unduly severe. He was Lord Chancellor under James I., and filled other important offices in the State; but having been convicted of grave misdemeanours, in the direction of bribery and corruption, before a court of justice, he was punished by the loss of his property, liberty, and honour. His inductive philosophy, which is founded on observation and experience, and which he propounded in his principal work, *Novum Organum*, has long been a prevailing philosophical method.

Incited by the example of Bacon's experimental philosophy, his fellow-countryman, Hobbes (1588–1679), developed his philosophy of materialism, by which he drew upon himself the reproach of atheism. The accusation of absolutism, however, is better founded; for, in opposition to the republican principles of his time, he declared the absolute power of the ruler, and the absolute obedience of the subject as indispensible to the maintenance of the State.

In opposition to Bacon and Hobbes, the abstruse thinker, Descartes, of Touraine, developed a system of Idealism, founded on free speculation. Descartes wrote most of his works in Holland, where he resided, after having

relinquished the military career to which he had at first devoted himself. Towards the end of his life, in obedience to an invitation from Christian of Sweden, he repaired to Stockholm, where he took up his residence, and where he died, in 1650. Among his opponents, the famous mathematician and physicist, Gassendi, who died a few years after him, in 1655, is the most celebrated, and his most noted adherent was the pious Malebranche.

The idealism of Descartes was principally developed by Baruch Spinoza (1632–77), a member of the Hebrew community in Amsterdam, who, rejected by those of his own creed, and shunned by Christians on account of the undeserved accusation of atheism, developed, in peaceful retirement, his peculiar system of philosophy, in which, for the first time, Pantheism was propounded in all its severe and unmitigated characteristics. Spinoza ascribes everything to a first Great Cause, and denies the existence of such a thing as chance, everything with him being produced by necessity.

Italy.—Italian Prose and Poetry.



In Florence there lived and laboured in the earlier part of the sixteenth century the eminent statesman, politician, and historian, Nicolo Machiavelli, who died in 1527, one of the most intellectual and sagacious men of any age or country. Among his most noted works are his Discourse on Titus Livius, and his History of Florence. Among his political writings, his much defamed book, "The Prince," is the most remarkable. In this work, which was undertaken for Lorenzo de Medicis, called "The Magnificent," the father of the French queen Catharine, and written in enforced retirement in a miserable country-house, Machiavelli represents a prince—a tyrant—who, like Cæsar Borgia and others, was able by his astute and consistent action, without regard for virtue, morality, or religion, to establish his despotic government in the State which he had subjugated, and to constitute his will an unquestioned law. For this reason a faithless policy, which pursues its own path regardless of all humanity and morality in government, and considers every means as justifiable for obtaining that material success which is its motive for action, has always been known by the term Machiavellism. These theories gave so much offence in later times, that Frederick II. of Prussia, and Voltaire, undertook to confute them, and the former, when Crown Prince, produced the "Anti-Machiavel"; nevertheless, they appear so much opposed to Machiavelli's principles, as enunciated elsewhere in his works, that it has been conjectured that he desired by this description to warn his countrymen against the power of a single ruler, and to impress on them the importance of maintaining republicanism.

The historian of the French civil wars that filled the latter half of the sixteenth century, was the Venetian Davila (1567–1631), who lived for a long time in France, and had an intimate knowledge of the principal persons engaged in the national conflicts.

Italian Poetry.

Among the most famous poets of his age was the author of "Orlando Furioso," the talented Ludovico Ariosto, born at Reggio in 1474. His father desired him to become a priest. This, however, was distasteful to him, and after a close study of ancient literature, and especially poetry, he wrote, first, comedies, such as "Cassaria," and "The Exchanges," after the model of Plautus and Terence. This was followed, in 1516, by other poems. His great work contains the fabulous story of the adventures of Roland and various paladins of the time of Charlemagne, written with especial reference to the glories of the house of Este, to please the poet's patron, the Duke of Ferrara.

Special mention should be made, also, of the Italian poetesses who flourished at the beginning of the sixteenth century. The most celebrated of these was Vittoria Colonna (1490–1547), daughter of the brave Fabricio Colonna, and widow of Fernando d'Avalos, Marquis of Pescara. After the early death of her husband, with whom she had spent very happy years in the island of Ischia, she lived in great retirement, though in constant communication with the poets and learned men of the time. She subsequently took up her abode in Rome, where her poems were first published in 1538.

Next to Ariosto, Torquato Tasso (1544–1595) occupies the foremost place among Italian poets. He was born at Sorrento, was educated at Jesuit colleges at Naples and Rome, and in his thirteenth year entered the University of Padua. Before he was nineteen he obtained some amount of fame by his first epic "Rinaldo"; and in 1572 his pastoral play, "Aminta," was performed with great approval before the Court at Ferrara.



MACHIAVELLI.



MICHAEL ANGELO, TASSO, AND LUDOVICO ARIOSTO, AT VITTORIA COLONNA'S.



MIGUEL CERVANTES DE SAAVEDRA.

SPAIN: CERVANTES; LOPE DE VEGA.

THE highest poetic renown in Spain was attained in romance and the drama. After Mendoza had laid the foundation of the style of satirical romance, in his "Lazarilla de Tormes," Michael Cervantes de Saavedra became, by his comic-satirical romance, *Don Quixote*, the creator of a new style. The first part of that wonderful book, enitled "The life and actions of the noble and ingenious Knight, Don Quixote de la Mancha," appeared in 1605; the second part was published ten years later. The contrast between the imaginative and chivalrous enthusiast and his matter-of-fact esquire, Sancho Panza, is admirable. Another work of Cervantes, *Persiles and Sigismunde*, a story of northern adventures, did not appear until after his death. Cervantes also attempted dramatic composition (*The Fall of Numantia*), but in this branch of literature he was surpassed by his contemporary, Lope de Vega (1552–1635), who may be regarded as the special founder of the Spanish national theatre, for which he is said to have written no less than 1,500 comedies. His contemporary, Calderon de la Barca (1600–1681), who is considered the greatest

of the Spanish dramatists, was less prolific than Lope de Vega, but his superior in literary and constructive skill.

At the same period, Portugal produced a great lyric and epic poet in the person of Luis de Camoens (1525–1679), the son of an eminent sea captain. Camoens devoted himself to the sea service, and after losing an eye in the attack on Ceuta, undertook long voyages to the East Indies. Banished from the Portuguese settlement of Goa to Macao, for writing a satirical poem, he undertook, in his exile, the great epic *The Lusiad*, giving an account of the circumnavigation of Africa and the discovery of the maritime route to India by Vasco de Gama.



CAMOENS.

France.



RABELAIS.

THE period of the Renaissance was a rich pasture-ground, full of wheat and tares. In no writer is this shown more significantly than in François Rabelais (1483–1553), monk and humorist, physician and priest, in whose writings every aspect of life, and every vice and virtue of his time, is graphically pourtrayed. His great work is the humorous romance *Gargantua and Pantagruel*, rich in wit and humour, but unpardonably gross in its images and allusions.

Clement Marot (1484–1544) was a lyric poet of great renown among his contemporaries. Already as a youth he won the favour of King Francis I. by his allegorical poem, "The Temple of Cupid." He drew on himself the anger of the clergy by his translation of the Psalms, and was thrown into prison on a charge of heresy; but the influence of the king caused him to be set at liberty, and he revenged himself on his adversaries by writing an allegorical satirical poem entitled "Hell." Marot's patroness, Queen Marguerite of Navarre, shared with him, not only his free religious opinions, but also his preference for classic literature and Italian poetry. Her romances, which she named "Heptameron," after the "Decamerone" of Boccaccio, are a proof of this. The names of Ronsard, Malherbe and Regnier also belong to this period of French history.

England: Ossian, Chaucer, The Drama.



CHAUCER.

THE most ancient Celtic inhabitants of Britain were rich in poetical and legendary lore, and possessed a class of poets or bards, who had maintained their position in those districts, such as Wales, Ireland, and the Scotch Highlands, which had not been conquered by Anglo-Saxon and Norman settlers. Traces of the songs of these bards, which were orally transmitted, may possibly form the foundation of effusions known as the poems of Ossian, the original form having been altered and utterly obscured by additions and interpolations. In England the development of national poetry was at a standstill until, in the fourteenth century, Geoffrey Chaucer (1328–1400), a student of the law and a diplomatist, a man of the world and in an influential position in society, and zealous for the reforms of Wickliffe, imitated the romances of Boccaccio in his "Canterbury Tales," and by his establishment of the language of poetry and the development of form, became "the father of English poetry." But the great period of poetical literature dawned upon England when, after the wars of the Reformation, the basis of England's internal and external greatness was laid in the glorious reign of Elizabeth, and London became the centre of every art and talent.

The poet-laureate, Spenser (1553–1599), the author of the "Fairy Queen," was, on account of his euphonious language and softness of style, designated as the creator of pastoral poetry.



SCENE FROM CANTERBURY TALES.

It was, however, in the department of dramatic poetry that England, in the second half of the sixteenth and the first half of the seventeenth century,



EARLY DRAMA: A PASSION PLAY.

attained to a degree of perfection such as has been equalled at no other time and in no other country. Passing over the names of some lesser dramatic writers, such as Lily, Marlow, and Robert Greene, who flourished at the end of the sixteenth century, we come to one of the greatest geniuses of all times, William Shakspeare (1564–1616), who, standing on the boundary of two periods of the world, scans with an equally steadfast glance "the splendour, greatness, and power of the departed feudal world and of vanished chivalry," and the new world "of self-conscious morality, of reason, and of worldly wisdom," which had been developed by the Reformation. Shakspeare is equally great in comedy and in tragedy, and in his sonnets he unveils to us his own deep world of feeling, and allows us a glance into his own life, which had been darkened by many youthful glooms and disappointments. His

plays are thirty-five in number. The tragedies treat either of historical events or of human nature and its destinies from universal points of view. In the delineation of character Shakspeare exhibits an overpowering mastery; actions are developed naturally from the characteristics, temperaments, and passions of the actors; and whatever has a place in the innermost depths of the human heart is pourtrayed with a startling truthfulness in his works.

Among Shakspeare's contemporaries may be mentioned the dramatists Beaumont (1585–1616) and Fletcher (1576–1625), who wrote plays conjointly; also Ben Jonson (1574–1637), a cultivated, classical writer, who, after a gloomy and adventurous life, devoted himself to dramatic poetry. But he is more



A STAGE PLAY IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

remarkable for wit and a happy treatment of playful situations, than for feeling and imagination.

The enthusiasm for religion and the Church was now predominant, and gave its colour both to poetry and life. John Milton (1608–1674), a republican of puritanical severity, who was for a long time secretary under Cromwell, though he had become blind, has described in his religious epic, "Paradise Lost," the story of the Fall, through which evil came into the world. The second part, entitled "Paradise Regained," treats of the temptation of Christ in the wilderness, and is inferior to the first poem.

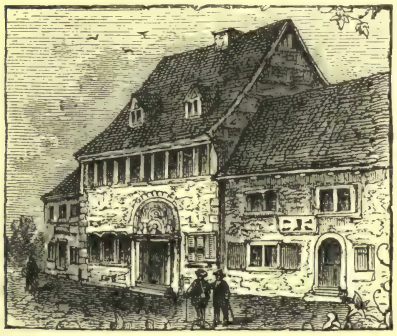
While the pious earnestness of the age is exhibited by the republican Milton, the derision of the Royalists at the various extravagances of Puritan and Presbyterian zeal is pourtrayed by Samuel Butler (1612–73), who lived during the reign of Charles II. The comic epic, "Hudibras," is a satire on

religious and political fanaticism. It follows to a certain extent the lines of Don Quixote. The poem was a great favourite with Charles II.

With the Stuarts effeminacy and frivolity once more took possession of the Court. This social condition is pourtrayed by Dryden (1631–1701), the obsequious, flattering poet-laureate, who first sought to win over Cromwell by a laudatory poem, then glorified Charles II., and at last went over, with James II., to the Catholic Church, and derided the Protestant sects.

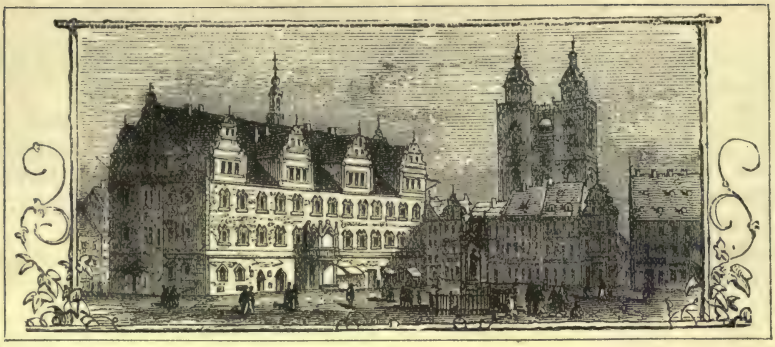
The eighteenth century was richer in philosophy than poetry; even the witty and accomplished Pope (1688–1744), who published a free translation of Homer, and was the successful writer of several satires, didactic poems, etc., was more a philosopher than a poet, as is proved by his "Essay on Man." Thomson's "Seasons" alone contain the faithful poetic representations of nature by a true poet. The "Night Thoughts" of Young (1681–1765), or lamentations on life and death, are philosophical meditations in the melancholy style of old popular poetry. Light prose, on the other hand, was brought to great perfection, in the shape of attractive and amusing books. Swift (1667–1745) describes in his satirical tales ("Gulliver's Travels," "The Tale of a Tub," etc.) all the absurdities and perversities of his age with excellent humour. Addison (1662–1719), in the *Spectator*, presents a picture of the manners of his time, which he treats now with gravity, now with ridicule and irony. Among writers of romance may be mentioned Richardson (died 1671), the author of "Clarissa" and "Grandison," Fielding (died 1754), and especially Sterne (1713-68), who, in his "Sentimental Journey" and "Tristram Shandy," represents with the most good-natured humour the peculiarities of mankind in their customs, habits, etc. The much-read story of the "Vicar of Wakefield," by Oliver Goldsmith (died 1774), is a moving family romance, in which tender and beautiful relationships are described with a natural truthfulness. In Smollett's "Humphry Clinker," life is pourtrayed in the cheerful manner of comedy.

GERMANY.—POPULAR LITERATURE IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.



HANS SACHS (1494–1576) was one of the most fertile and varied writers of this active period. He was a popular poet, but avoided the rude and plebeian tone of the prevailing literature. His works comprise the "Wittenberg Nightingale,"—under which title he greeted the advent of Luther as the dawn of a new day,—his "Lamentation on the Death of Luther," historical and mythological tales, biblical stories, etc. John Fischart (1545–1589), of Mainz, is the most fertile and varied writer in the satirical popular style. His principal works are "The Ship of Fortune," "Gargantua," and some satirical writings aimed at the orders of monks and at the Jesuits.

In the religious branch of literature may be mentioned Luther's church songs, sermons, his translation of the Bible, and controversial writings. Among the most famous poets of church songs was Paul Gerhard (1606–76), of Saxony, for a long time preacher at Berlin, who followed Luther's model and preserved in his temper the cheerful trust and reliance on God which is breathed forth in the old songs.



THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

FIRST PERIOD OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR; (TO THE EDICT OF RESTITUTION).

REIGN OF FERDINAND I., AND OF MAXIMILIAN II.—PROSPERITY OF GERMANY.—RUDOLF II.—REACTION TOWARDS ROMANISM.—THE PROTESTANT UNION AND THE CATHOLIC LEAGUE.—SCHEMES OF HENRY IV. OF FRANCE.—THE EMPEROR MATTHIAS.—DISCONTENTS IN BOHEMIA.—THE OUTRAGE ON THE IMPERIAL ENVOYS.—COMMENCEMENT OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.—THE EMPEROR FERDINAND II.—COUNT THURN.—THE PALSGRAVE FREDERICK V. MADE KING OF BOHEMIA.—BATTLE OF THE WHITE MOUNTAIN, 1620.—THE WAR OF THE PALATINATE.—TILLY AND MANSFELD.—CHRISTIAN OF BRUNSWICK.—THE DANISH WAR.—CHRISTIAN IV.—WALLENSTEIN, HIS GREAT INFLUENCE.—VICTORIES OF WALLENSTEIN AND TILLY.—TRIUMPH OF THE EMPEROR.—SUPREMACY OF AUSTRIA.—EDICT OF RESTITUTION.—DISMISSAL OF WALLENSTEIN.

GERMANY UNDER FERDINAND I. AND MAXIMILIAN II.



WHILE the western countries of Europe were engaged in persistent and disastrous conflicts, Germany was at peace under the mild rule of Ferdinand I. (1556–64), and of his son Maximilian II. The dissensions of theologians, however, were maintained with acrimonious violence. The divisions which thus arose in the Protestant world afforded the Jesuits a welcome opportunity for extending the field of their activity, and they availed themselves of it with equal zeal and astuteness. Both Ferdinand and Maximilian maintained the religious peace in a just and impartial manner; and Protestantism spread without hindrance throughout the German empire, and even made converts in the Austrian

hereditary states. Maximilian II. (1564–76) was a just and prudent ruler, who always pursued a conciliatory policy; the finances and military system were in a flourishing condition under his sway, so that the imperial arms not only put a speedy end to the temporary disturbances in the empire,—such as the well-known quarrel occasioned and maintained by the knight Grumbach,—but also offered an effectual resistance to the Turkish incursions. All this was changed when Rudolf II. (1576–1612), who was a cultivated prince, but with little capacity as a ruler, and a zealous Catholic, succeeded his father. The dissensions, factions, and party animosities in the empire increased to such an alarming extent that the Emperor's nearest relatives, dreading that



RUDOLF II. GRANTING THE BOHEMIAN CHARTER, OR "LETTER OF MAJESTY."

the Hapsburg house would lose its former influence through his carelessness and incapacity, compelled him, in 1608, to make over the government of Austria, Moravia, and Hungary to his brother Matthias. Bohemia, with its capital, Prague, which city he had selected for his residence, he kept for some time faithful to him by the gift of a charter, or "letter of majesty," which gave the Utraquists and Lutherans equal privileges with the Catholics, and by other concessions in the same direction; but when his mercenaries oppressed the land with pillage and murder, Rudolf was compelled to give up Bohemia, Silesia, and Lusatia also to his brother Matthias; so that the powerless imperial crown was all that remained to him when death put an end to his inglorious career, in the year 1612.

While the indolent Rudolf was neglecting the business of his government, and wasting his time and powers in astrological and alchymical dreams, the empire was distracted by religious conflicts, and the greatest excitement and confusion prevailed everywhere. The ever-increasing extension of the Reformation brought about fresh confiscations of Church property; and this was a cause of grievance to the Catholic party, while on the other hand the Evangelical sects were indignant at the frequent violation of the conditions guaranteed by the religious peace of Augsburg. When Gebhard, Archbishop of Cologne, joined the reformed Church, and, in spite of the opposition of the chapter and senate of Cologne, introduced the new doctrine into most of the towns of the archbishopric, he was excommunicated by the Pope, and deprived of his offices and dignities. A prelate, a member of the Bavarian ruling house, was then appointed to the vacant see, and with the help of the Spaniards reduced the rebellious towns, such as Bonn, Neuss, etc., to submission. In Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola, the Archduke Ferdinand, a grandson of the Emperor Ferdinand I., who had been educated and was influenced by the Jesuits, refused the numerous Protestants the religious liberty they had previously enjoyed, destroyed their churches, and burned their Bibles. In the imperial city of Aix-la-Chapelle, after a long and arduous struggle, the Protestant magistrate was expelled, and replaced by a Catholic one; the Evangelical preachers were also driven away, and a powerful counter-reformation was commenced. The imperial city of Donauwörth, also, which was chiefly Protestant, was placed under the ban for having interrupted a religious procession. It was taken by the intolerant Elector of Bavaria, Maximilian I., and deprived of its religious freedom.

The Union and the League.

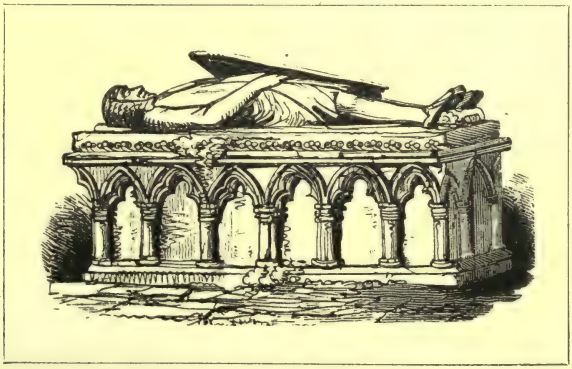


As the complaints of the Evangelical party at the violation of the religious peace met with no attention or redress from the weak-minded Emperor, and Maximilian threatened to annex Donauwörth, the Calvinist chiefs and the Lutheran princes, in 1608, entered into a combination called the Protestant Union, with the ruling princes of Würtemberg, Baden-Durlach, and Pfalz-Neuburg, the Brandenburg Margraves in Franconia, and fifteen towns of the empire, at the suggestion of the young Palsgrave Frederick, and of Prince Christian of Anhalt, for mutual support against attacks and violence. In opposition to this alliance, there was speedily organized the Catholic League, which Maximilian of Bavaria concluded with the Bishops of Würzburg, Salzburg, Regensburg, Augsburg, and Passau, and with the three spiritual electorates, Treves, Mayence, and Cologne. The death of the imbecile, childless Duke of Cleves, Jülich, and Berg, which occurred about this time, gave the first occasion for a hostile encounter between the two religious parties. As the succession was disputed, the Emperor claimed the dominions until the matter should be decided; but the two princes who set up pretensions to the succession, the Elector of Brandenburg and Palsgrave Wolfgang of Neuburg, adjusted their



SIEGE OF JÜLICH. (*From Gottfried's "Historic Chronicle."*)

differences, and in alliance with each other took speedy possession of the province. A bloody war already threatened the distracted country; for the Spaniards under Spinola had, in the name of the Emperor, advanced towards Wesel, and the League was making warlike preparations; but the "princes in possession" appealed for help to the Union, which was in alliance with Henry IV. of France and with the Dutch. Henry was already making preparations for a war which was intended to work a complete change in the European political system, and to shatter the supremacy of the Hapsburg house for ever, when Ravaillac's murderous hand frustrated his design; and thus the outbreak of the general war was delayed for a few years longer.



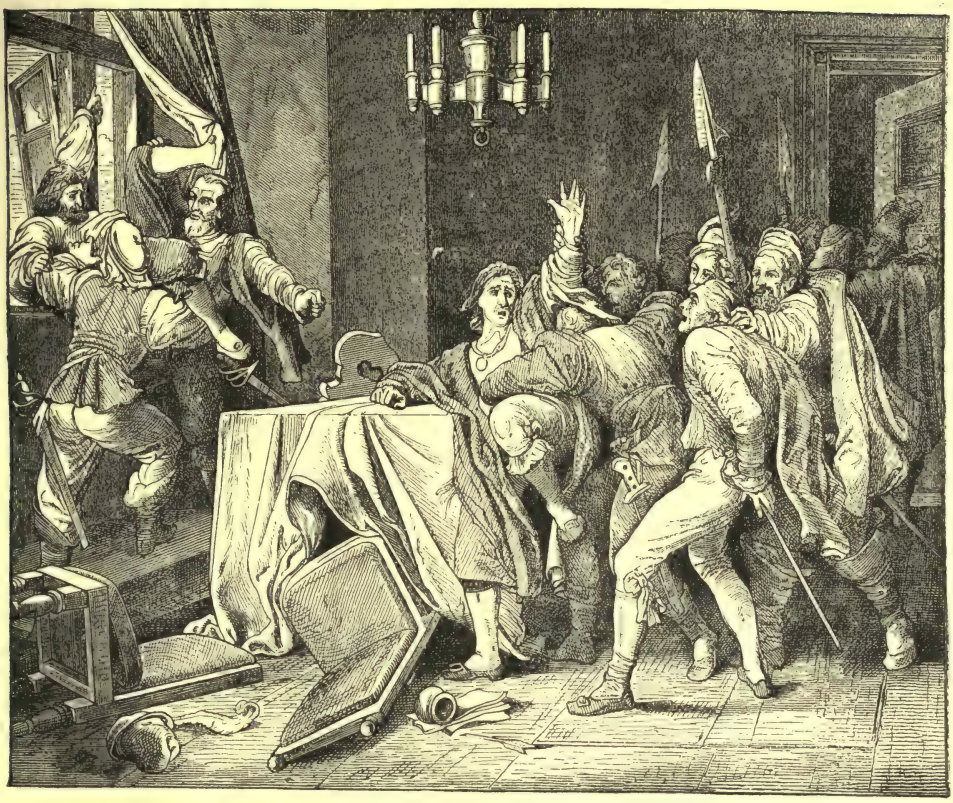
The Bohemian War.



MATTHIAS (1612–19) possessed as little power and capacity for government as Rudolf, whose crown he had taken; and as he was old and childless, he resolved, with the concurrence of his brothers, to appoint his cousin Ferdinand as his successor in Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia. The choice of a prince who had showed in Styria and Carinthia that he regarded the task of winning a victory for Catholicism as his first duty as a ruler, caused many misgivings among the Bohemian Utraquists and Lutherans, more especially as the Catholic party, relying on his support, proudly raised its head, and the Jesuits set up the maxim of *novus rex, nova lex.* At the building of two Protestants churches on the domain of the Abbot of Brauna, there arose a controversy as to whether free exercise of their religion was accorded to Evangelical subjects of the ecclesiastical class, or whether the charter, called the "letter of majesty," secured it only to the class of knights and gentry, and the royal towns and territories. When this question was decided to the disadvantage of the Evangelicals, the prevailing excitement increased. The official defenders, or "defensores," who were appointed by the Protestants for the protection of their rights, held a meeting, and drew up a representation, which was sent to Matthias, who was absent in Hungary. But the answer of the Emperor was couched in terms of reproof; and Matthias forbade all further meetings of the malcontents. Then the deputies of the Utraquist party, under the leadership of the fiery Count von Thurn, appeared armed in their council chamber in the castle of the Ratchin, in Prague, to hold an interview with the imperial councillors who were entrusted with the administration of Bohemia. After a short but very heated controversy, the enraged Protestants seized two of the imperial envoys, Martinitz and Slawata,—who were especially hated for being zealous Catholics,—and flung them out of the castle window, together with their secretary, Fabricius. In spite of the height from which they fell, and the shots that were fired after them, they escaped with their lives.

Schiller, in his tragedy of "Wallenstein," alludes to the unfortunate event of that day, from which the downfall and misfortunes of Bohemia dated. The old cellarer, showing the great service cup on which the incident is depicted, says :—

> "O let me never more hear of that day:
> It seems to me as t'were but yesterday.
> From that unlucky day it all began,
> From that day until now 'tis sixteen years,
> And never has there once been peace on earth."



MARTINITZ AND SLAWATA THROWN FROM THE WINDOW OF THE PALACE IN PRAGUE.

FERDINAND II.

AS the sole way to escape punishment for this rash act, the Utraquist deputies now possessed themselves of the government of the country, drove out the Jesuits, and equipped an army which they placed under the command of Thurn. The news of these proceedings filled the mind of the feeble and decrepit sick emperor with terror and dismay; but his proposals, which tended towards leniency and conciliation, were opposed by Ferdinand. An imperial army marched into the revolted country, but Thurn, supported by the brave leader Ernest of Mansfeld, repulsed the army of the enemy in 1619, and then, encouraged by the news of Matthias' death, advanced toward Brünn; the deputies of Moravia, like the Silesians and Lusatians, joined the Bohemians, and expelled the Jesuits. In a short time Thurn stood with a hostile army before the gates of Vienna. Ferdinand, resolved to take up the challenge flung down by the Bohemians, remained steadfastly and courageously in his capital, clearly perceiving that his flight would lead to the invasion of Austria, and would

shake the Hapsburgs' throne to its foundations. The Protestants then entered into an alliance with Thurn; their deputies penetrated even into the imperial palace, and threateningly demanded equality of religious rights with the Catholics, and other important privileges. Ferdinand's obstinate resistance would have brought him into danger had not some cavalry under the imperial leader, Dampierre, at the same moment dashed into the courtyard of the castle and rescued him from his difficult position. Thurn was then compelled to retire, on account of unfavourable weather and want of money and provisions.

Soon afterwards Ferdinand II. (1619–37) was chosen German Emperor, at Frankfort; but even before the coronation, the States of Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia revolted from the house of Austria, and chose the head of the Protestant Union, the Elector Frederick V. of the Palatinate as their king.

While the Palsgrave Frederick, however, was wasting his time in empty pageants in Bohemia, and was provoking the Utraquists and Lutherans with his Calvinistic zeal, which extended to the breaking of images and the desecration of holy places and ornaments, Ferdinand entered into a treaty with the League, made an alliance with Spain, and won over the Lutheran Elector, John George of Saxony to the Austrian side, by the promise of Lusatia. In vain did Thurn, in conjunction with the astute Bethlem Gabor (Gabriel Bethlem), Prince of Transylvania, an ambitious ruler who coveted the crown of Hungary, once more approach the walls of Vienna with a hostile force; he was again obliged to retire without having accomplished his purpose; and Ferdinand was now able to reduce the rebellious Austrian States to submission, while the experienced general, Spinola, advanced with a Spanish army into the Palatinate. Maximilian of Bavaria, with whom John Czerklaes, Count Tilly, a warlike Fleming, had taken service as general, now marched into Bohemia with a well-armed force sent forth by the League, and, reinforced by Ferdinand's troops, advanced upon Prague without waiting to enter into negotiations, on the 7th of November, 1620. Soon afterwards the battle of the White Mountain was fought under the walls of Prague, when Frederick's wearied soldiers, led by Thurn and Christian of Anhalt, were unable to stand against the superior forces of the enemy, and sought safety in tumultuous and disorderly flight. A single hour decided the fate of Bohemia. Frederick, the "winter king," so completely lost all courage and presence of mind that he fled in great haste on the following morning to Silesia, although considerable armed forces, under the command of his friends Bethlem Gabor and Mansfeld, were in the neighbourhood, and the citizens of Prague were ready to defend him. He continued his flight with panic speed, hastened from Breslau to Berlin, and from Berlin to the Netherlands, pursued by the imperial ban, which deprived him of his inheritance of the Palatinate. Within a few months Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia were once more brought into subjection by the Austrian house. Cruel vengeance was inflicted on the prostrate country. Twenty-seven of the greatest nobles perished on the scaffold; hundreds were banished and their estates confiscated to enrich the victors and the returned Jesuits. The prosperity of Bohemia and the independence of the unhappy country were gone for ever.



BETHLEM GABOR, PRINCE OF TRANSYLVANIA.

The War in the Palatinate of the Rhine.—Tilly and Mansfeld.



GENERAL TILLY.

WHILE the Emperor was meditating some means of giving the Catholic Church universal supremacy, rewarding his friends, and revenging himself on his enemies, three men, Duke Christian of Brunswick, Ernest of Mansfeld, and the Margrave George Frederick of Baden-Durlach, ventured to take the field in the cause of the outlawed Elector, and for the defence of the threatened Protestant faith. While Christian of Brunswick, a bold rough warrior, who called himself "the friend of God and the enemy of priests," invaded Westphalia, despoiled monasteries and ecclesiastical institutions, and carried the firebrand of warfare as far as the Maine, the brave and martial Mansfeld marched through Franconia to the Rhenish Palatinate. His warlike renown brought to his banner from every district many soldiers who were eager for booty; plunder and rapine were the means by which he procured subsistence for his troops. In a short time his power had so increased that the fugitive Palsgrave ventured, under his protection, to return to his hereditary states. In conjunction with George Frederick of Baden, Mansfeld fought a victorious battle near Wiesloch, April 29th, 1622, against Tilly, the victor of the White Mountain, who had marched into the Palatinate. As the two victorious generals soon afterwards separated, George Frederick on the 6th of the following month lost the important battle of Wimpfen against Tilly, and would have fallen into the hands of his enemies had not four hundred citizens of Pforzheim, as the old legend relates the event, fought heroically for him to the death, sacrificing themselves to the last man, to cover his retreat. A few weeks later Christian of Brunswick was also beaten, near Höchst, June 19th, 1622, in an encounter with the well-disciplined troops of the general of the League; and on the 6th of August in the following year, the bloody battle of Stadtlohn, in which Christian was forced to engage before he could effect an intended coalition with Mansfeld, destroyed the last hope of the Protestants. The vanquished leaders fled to foreign lands, pursued by the ban of the empire. Maximilian of Bavaria was rewarded with the prize he had longed to win—the Rhenish Palatinate.

But the contest which thus seemed terminated was destined to be renewed on a larger scale, and to swell to greater European importance, in the course of the next few years.

The Danish War.—Wallenstein.

THE increasing power of Austria excited considerable apprehension both at the French Court and in the free States of the Netherlands. King James of England, who had till then abstained from rendering any vigorous support to his son-in-law, lest he should by so doing damage the prospect of a marriage alliance between his son, Prince Charles, and a Spanish Infanta, now changed his policy, and placed the enterprising Ernest of Mansfeld in a position to march once more into the field. Soon also a new defender of the Protestant cause appeared in the person of King Christian IV. of Denmark, the uncle of Elizabeth, the daughter of James I. and wife of the banished Palsgrave Frederick V. Religious zeal and the hope of acquiring possessions in northern Germany induced him to take the field. England and Holland concluded treaties with him, and Cardinal Richelieu, the great minister of the French king, Louis XIII., promised pecuniary aid. Then the Emperor, who was suspicious of the tendencies of the League, and of the high authority of Maximilian, into whose hands he saw that the direction of the affairs of Germany was passing more and more, determined to collect an army that should belong to him alone. Thereupon Albrecht von Wallenstein, a Bohemian nobleman from the vicinity of Königingrätz, offered his services. Born of Lutheran parents, but converted in a Jesuit seminary to the Catholic Church, Wallenstein entered the imperial army after having completed his studies at Altdorf and Padua, and on several occasions he had given evidence of his devotion to the imperial cause, his talent for generalship, and his power of governing soldiers and attaching them to himself. He was a wealthy man, and possessed a very large extent of landed property, which he had partly inherited and partly obtained by marriage, while he had increased his possessions by the purchase of forfeited estates in the Bohemian war. Wallenstein appeared before Ferdinand with the declaration that he would maintain an army for the Emperor at his own expense, on condition that he was endowed with the supreme command and indemnified for his expense by territories in the countries he might conquer. It is said that when it was proposed he should raise 20,000 men, he replied that he could not maintain them, but that he would raise 50,000 who would



RICHELIEU.

not die of hunger. He meant that the larger number would be strong enough to take what they wanted from friend or foe. After some hesitation, Ferdinand agreed to the proposal of the bold adventurer. He had already conferred on him the dominion of Friedland, on the northern boundary of Bohemia, with the title of duke, for his services in the Bohemian war; he now elevated him to the rank of a prince of the Empire.

The Victories of Wallenstein and Tilly.



WALLENSTEIN.

In the spring of the year 1624, Christian IV., who had made an alliance with England and Holland, and was supported by the other Protestant generals, opened the campaign against Tilly on the Weser, without effecting anything decisive. But when Wallenstein with his fierce troops took possession of the district near the Elbe, which had until then been left unscathed by warfare, and made a coalition with Tilly, the combined forces of the Emperor and the League soon gained the upper hand over the weakened troops of the Protestant commanders. Mansfeld, after a defeat near the bridge of Dessau, in 1626, was compelled to retreat, and was pursued by Wallenstein as he retired with the remains of his army to Hungary, where he hoped to effect a junction with Bethlem Gabor; but he was unable to carry out this scheme, for that wavering prince once more made peace with the Emperor;—Mansfeld therefore disbanded his troops, and, accompanied by a few followers, retreated still farther, intending to reach Venice. On his way through Bosnia he was seized with a fever, brought on by excessive privation and fatigue. Arrayed in his armour, and with his sword girded about him, and standing erect, supported by two servants, he calmly awaited death. His corpse lies buried at Spalatro.

Two other champions of the Protestant cause, Christian of Brunswick and Duke John Ernest of Saxe-Weimar, also died in that same year (1626). The whole of southern Germany was now defenceless, and lay at the mercy of the army of the League; and the Protestant States hastened to make their peace with the Emperor, even though the conditions offered them were hard. Christian IV., indeed, made one further attempt on the Elbe; but when Wallenstein, after the victorious battle near Cosel, in 1627, drove the enemy out of Silesia, expelled the two Dukes of Mecklenburg from their country, and then united his forces with those of Tilly, the Danish-German army, weakened by dissensions, was compelled to yield to the superior power of the enemy; for on the 27th of August, 1626, Christian IV. had been beaten with great loss by Tilly, who had almost succeeded



SOLDIERS OF WALLENSTEIN IN THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

in taking him prisoner. In a short time, Holstein, Schleswig, and Jutland fell into the hands of the imperialists, and Wallenstein formed the project of wresting these countries from their hereditary prince, and placing them under Ferdinand's immediate supremacy. The Spaniards, in the hope of regaining possession of the Netherlands, supported the plans of the ambitious and haughty leader in north Germany; and nothing but the fear of an obstinate war, the want of an extensive naval power, and the heroic courage of the population of Stralsund, who were determined to defend their city to the last, caused the duke to desist from his scheme. By the peace of Lübeck, in 1629, Christian IV. was once more put into possession of his devastated lands; but he was compelled to promise that he would abstain from any further interference in German affairs.

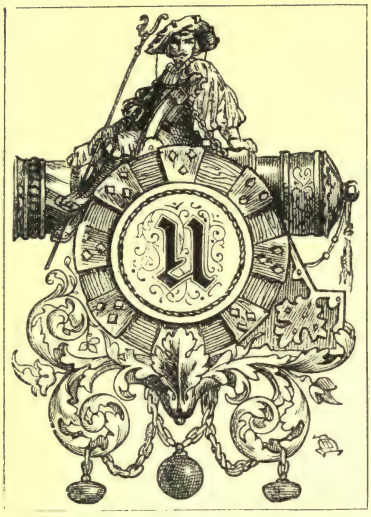
The Supremacy of Austria.



AFTER the battle of Lutter, Ferdinand's power in Germany now seemed as securely established as in his hereditary states. Disunited among themselves, the quarrelsome Protestants were either conquered by force, won over by cajolery, or intimidated into acquiescence in the Romish supremacy. If the Emperor had held out the hand of reconciliation, the power of the Hapsburgs would have been greater than ever in Germany. But Ferdinand's religious bigotry stood in the way of a peaceful policy. He cared for no victory that was not at the same time the triumph of Catholicism over the humiliated heretical Confessions; and the persecutions of heretics in Bohemia and Austria were therefore continued with renewed severity. Maximilian of Bavaria, the head of the League, adopted a similar policy in the upper Palatinate, which had been conferred on him first as a fief, and then as a hereditary possession, by the Emperor; and in the lower Palatinate the Jesuits were allowed to pursue their policy of conversion without let or hindrance. The districts in the north were threatened with similar treatment; for Wallenstein had obtained the dukedom of Mecklenburg with Rostock from the Emperor, and after the victory near Wolgast over the Danish king, had contemplated extending it by conquests on the east coasts of Pomerania. The example of the grievances suffered by the Duke of Pomerania, who was compelled to give up his dominions to the devastating troops of the Friedlander, and by the Elector of Brandenburg, who had till then been favourably inclined and loyal to the Emperor, and in whose States imperial garrisons were quartered, terrified all Protestant princes. It was not to be denied that Wallenstein was endeavouring to render the power of the Emperor absolute, by divesting it of those limitations that had been imposed upon it by the constitution of Germany, and to crush the ancient independence of the various States that made up the empire. The ancient imperial laws and immunities, and the sovereign rights of the princes, were but little regarded by Wallenstein; and when the ambitious general—on whom the Emperor, grateful for his services to the throne, conferred, in addition to his huge military authority, the chief command at sea—made preparations for establishing a German naval power on the Baltic, with a purpose to exclude the enemies of the Emperor from trading in that sea, and with this object sought to possess himself of all the coast towns and harbours, not only the Hanseatic and all the other Baltic States, but the Dutch and the English were filled with distrust and apprehension.



The Edict of Restitution, and the Dismissal of Wallenstein.



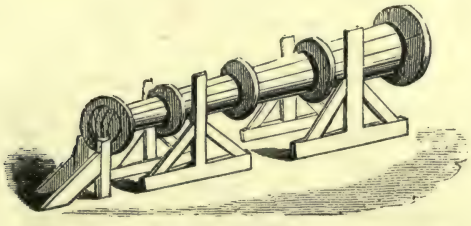
UNDER these difficult circumstances, Stralsund presented to the world a noble example of patriotism and of heroic courage. The citizens of that glorious old sea-town firmly refused to receive within their walls the garrison of Wallenstein's troops, whom the Emperor and his general endeavoured to force upon them. Wallenstein then advanced against the town, and appeared before it with his savage troops. It is said that in his wrathful pride he swore that he would conquer the stubborn city, and bring down its haughty spirit, though it were bound with chains to the heavens. But all assaults were rendered fruitless by the strong fortifications of the Baltic city and the heroic courage of the citizens, who had sworn that they would sacrifice their lives and their property, to the last doit, for the maintenance of their religion and their ancient rights and privileges. Further strengthened and encouraged by assistance from Denmark and Sweden, Stralsund for ten weeks defied every assault; and the besieging general sacrificed 12,000 men in vain. The example of Stralsund served to rouse the courage and zeal of Magdeburg.

In March, 1629, the Emperor, at the instigation of the ecclesiastical Electors (of Treves, etc.) issued the Edict of Restitution, by which it was decreed that all the benefices and ecclesiastical property that had been transferred to the Reformed Church since the Treaty of Passau, were to be restored to the Catholic Church, while the Calvinists were to be excluded from the religious peace, and the Catholic States were not to be opposed in the endeavour to convert their subjects. This edict, which introduced the most revolutionary changes into the constitution of the empire, and laid the axe to the root of the whole work of the Reformation, prolonged the unhappy war; for it compelled the Emperor to keep his troops under arms, as by military force alone could he hope to effect its accomplishment. A stupefaction of terror seized the whole of Protestant Germany. Even Wallenstein was opposed to the injudicious religious zeal of the imperial court, but was unable to restrain the policy of fanaticism. At last Magdeburg, whose citizens had formerly rejected the Interim, resisted the carrying out of the edict, and refused to admit an imperial garrison. The terrible Pappenheim, one of the most renowned of Wallenstein's captains, was already marching against this "nest of heretics;" but the storm which was drawing together threateningly over the head of the great freebooter, brought a short respite. At Ferdinand's first Diet at Regensburg, in 1630, the princes of the empire brought forward loud and vehement complaints concerning the terrible devastation of their territories by the barbarous method of warfare pursued by the Duke of Friedland. They also inveighed against his arbitrary encroachments on the imperial constitution; and Maximilian of Bavaria urgently demanded the removal of this presumptuous and arrogant rival. Ferdinand, who wished to create a favourable



DEATH OF RICHELIEU.

impression in view of the forthcoming election of his son as his successor in the imperial dignity, found himself obliged to pronounce the dismissal of Wallenstein, and to diminish his army. In the midst of his astrological studies at Memmingen, the general was informed of this decision. "The stars," said he to the deputation, pointing to the starry heavens—"the stars foretell that the spirit of the Bavarian will dominate the spirit of the Emperor." Contrary to expectation, he submitted to the decree of dismissal, and retired to his vast Bohemian estates, where, in proud tranquillity, and in the enjoyment of royal magnificence and state, he awaited the time when his presence and aid would be again needed by his imperial master.



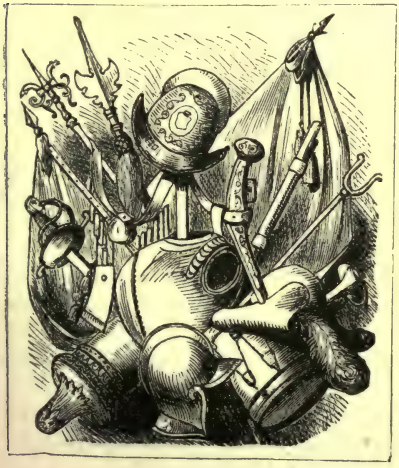
EARLY CANNON.



SECOND PERIOD OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR,

FROM THE SWEDISH INTERVENTION TO 1648.

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS OF SWEDEN.—HIS METHOD OF WARFARE.—ADVANCE INTO GERMANY.—TILLY, AND THE DESTRUCTION OF MAGDEBURG.—DEFEAT OF TILLY AT THE BATTLE OF BREITENFELD.—BRILLIANT SUCCESS OF GUSTAVUS.—THE PASSAGE OF THE LECH.—DEATH OF TILLY.—RETURN OF WALLENSTEIN; HIS UNPRECEDENTED POWER; HIS SUSPICIOUS POLICY.—THE CAMP AT NUREMBERG.—FAILURE OF GUSTAVUS TO STORM IT.—HIS RETREAT TOWARDS SAXONY.—THE BATTLE OF LÜTZEN; DEATH OF GUSTAVUS.—THE LEAGUE OF HEILBRONN.—VICTORY OF WALLENSTEIN AT STEINAU.—RENEWED EFFORTS OF HIS ENEMIES AT VIENNA.—OUTLAWRY OF WALLENSTEIN.—HIS ASSASSINATION.—BATTLE OF NÖRDLINGEN.—DEFEAT OF BERNHARD OF WEIMAR AND THE SWEDES.—PEACE OF PRAGUE WITH SAXONY.—OPEN INTERVENTION OF FRANCE.—RICHELIEU AND HIS POLICY.—THE EMPEROR FERDINAND III.—VICTORIES OF CONDÉ AND TURENNE.—FRESH EXPLOITS OF THE SWEDISH LEADERS.—PEACE OF WESTPHALIA; ITS CONDITIONS.—CONSEQUENCES OF THE WAR.



THE INTERVENTION OF SWEDEN.—GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

WHILE the Protestant States of Germany were helplessly and timidly submitting to the superior power of Austria, and awaited in terrified expectation the enforcing of the Edict of Restitution, there appeared a foreign ruler on German soil, who, by his great and paramount influ-

ence, was enabled to unite the divided and quarrelsome co-religionists on the Protestant side. This man of power was the Swedish king, Gustavus Adolphus. Offended at the deposition of his kinsmen the Dukes of Mecklenburg, and at the assistance which the Emperor had rendered to his enemies the Poles, and anxious to preserve the dominion of the Baltic, endangered by Wallenstein's plans, Gustavus Adolphus determined to intervene in the German war, partly to support the threatened Evangelical faith in Germany, partly to secure the power of Sweden and to extend it over the whole of the Baltic. Cardinal Richelieu, though he was the great opponent of the French Huguenots, did not hesitate to enter into an alliance with Gustavus Adolphus

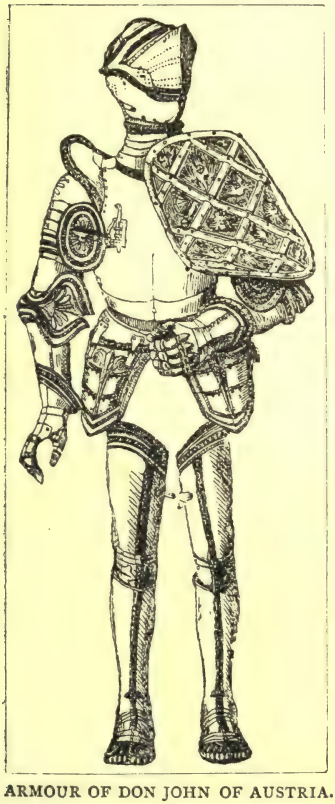


LANDING OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS IN GERMANY.

for the protection of the German Protestants, that he might thereby counteract the increasing influence of the powerful house of Hapsburg. The co-operation established between the French and Swedish policy effected the establishment of the League in a very short time. Even the Elector Maximilian of Bavaria, and the heads of the League, alarmed at the prospect of such an imperial supremacy as Wallenstein sought to establish, were favourable to the intervention of France. After an armed truce, brought about by French mediation, had been concluded between Sweden and Poland, Gustavus Adolphus effected a landing on the coast of Pomerania in June, 1630. Bogislav, the old duke of that oppressed territory, which had suffered grievously from the devastations

of the imperial troops, concluded a treaty with the Swedes, whereupon the latter captured Stettin, expelled the enemy, and gained possession of all Pomerania with the island of Rügen. The piety of Gustavus, and the severe discipline maintained among his soldiers, who assembled twice daily for Divine service, formed a striking contrast to the rapacious and destructive warfare of Tilly and Wallenstein ; consequently the people everywhere greeted the Swedes and their high-spirited king as saviours and liberators. Not so the princes of Germany, who, fearing to draw upon themselves the Emperor's vengeance, rejected the proffered alliance of the Swedish king, and maintained a neutral position ; but on the other hand, resolved to prevent by force of arms the carrying out of the Edict of Restitution. Only Magdeburg, the Dukes of Lüneburg, Saxe-Weimar, and Lauenburg, and Landgrave William of Hesse-Cassel joined the standard of the King of Sweden.

The Destruction of Magdeburg and the Battle of Leipzig.



ARMOUR OF DON JOHN OF AUSTRIA.

WHILE the Swedes were advancing along the Oder, and were storming Frankfort, Tilly, who had now the chief command of the imperial troops, as well as of the forces of the League, marched upon Magdeburg, where Colonel Falkenberg, who had taken service with the Swedes, was conducting the preparations for defence. Gustavus promised the city speedy help ; but when the Elector John George of Saxony obstinately refused to allow him to pass through his country, the Swedish king was delayed by negotiations, and Magdeburg was taken by storm, after an arduous siege and repeated assaults, by Tilly and Pappenheim, and almost utterly destroyed, in May, 1631. A three days' plundering of the wealthy stronghold of the Protestants had been promised to the imperial troops. Carried away by rapacity and revenge, the inhuman soldiers rushed headlong through the streets of the unhappy town, which became the scene of the most horrible outrages and of fearful carnage, until a conflagration at last transformed the whole place into a heap of ruins. Falkenberg was among the slain. While Gustavus Adolphus took possession of the country between the Oder and the Elbe, and reinstated the Dukes of Mecklenburg in their states, Tilly advanced against Hesse and Weimar, to chastise the rulers of those principalities for their alliance with Sweden, and then turned his arms against Electoral Saxony, the head of the Leipzig league. Halle, Merseburg, Naumburg, and other places had already fallen at the hands of the imperialists, when the Saxon Elector, in his extremity, concluded a treaty with Gustavus, and implored his aid against Tilly's murderous troops. Then was fought, on the 7th of September, 1631, the bloody battle of Leipzig and Breitenfeld, in which the well-disciplined imperial troops under Tilly experienced a severe defeat ;

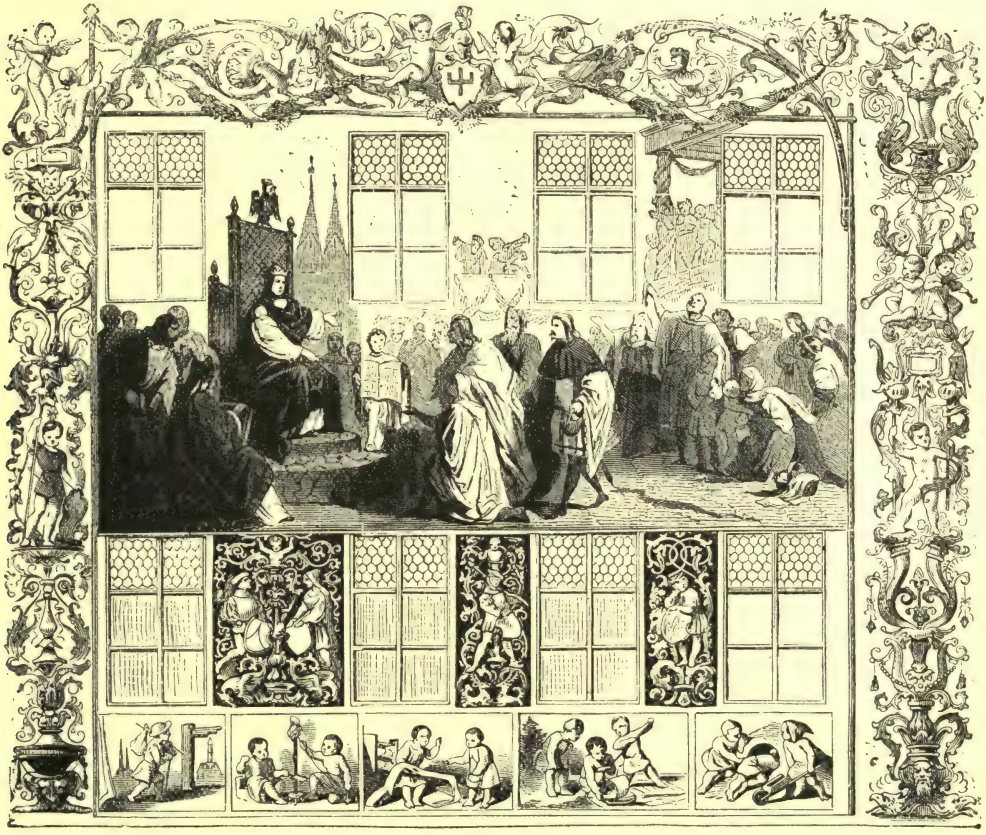
the Swedish king's eminent talents as a commander, and the steadfast bravery of his soldiers, gaining him the victory. Tilly was compelled to withdraw to the south, with the loss of 7,000 men ; while the Saxons, under Field-marshal Arnim, invaded Bohemia, and Gustavus Adolphus, who now beheld all Germany open before him, advanced towards the Maine and Rhine, to put himself into closer communication with his French allies. Before the winter was over, the bishopric of Würzburg, and the greater part of the Lower Palatinate, were in the hands of the Swedes.



THE MASSACRE OF MAGDEBURG.

The see of Würzburg, deserted by its bishop, was compelled to do homage to the king, and to accept a Swedish government for the territory. The splendid library of the Jesuits was removed to Upsala. Gustavus now proceeded to the conquest of Mayence, Worms, Mannheim, Spires, and other places in the Palatinate. In many districts he demanded that homage should be paid him as the feudal lord ; and his ambitious behaviour seemed to indicate in many ways that he intended to keep a firm footing in Germany, and perhaps even to endeavour to obtain the imperial crown. If he succeeded in reinstating the banished Count Palatine and depriving Maximilian of Bavaria of his newly-won territories, the Protestants would have a majority in the Electoral College, and Gustavus might be legally chosen. Endowed with

every physical and mental advantage, he gained ascendancy more and more over the hearts of the people. His genial and kindly character, and his sincere piety, awakened as much affection as his wise government, his courage and genius as a commander, excited respect and admiration. In the spring of the year 1632, Gustavus marched through Nuremberg, where he was received with rejoicings, to the Danube, to prosecute the war against Bavaria and measure his strength with Tilly, who had taken up a strong position near the junction of the Lech with the Danube. Gustavus forced the passage of the Lech in spite of a valiant resistance. During the storming of the enemy's trenches Tilly was so dangerously wounded that he died a fortnight



AUGSBURG FRESCOES ON THE HOUSE OF THE FUGGERS.

afterwards at Ingoldstadt. His mind was occupied to the very moment of his death in military schemes. After gaining possession of Augsburg, where he demanded the homage of the people, restored the Lutheran worship, and gave back to the Protestants the rule of the town, the Swedish army made a fruitless attack on Ingoldstadt, and then marched into the heart of Bohemia, while Maximilian hastened to Regensburg to conduct the defence of that important town. In May, Gustavus Adolphus entered Munich, which had been deserted by the Court. A fine in money and the removal of 140 cannon, that were found hidden away, was the only punishment which the king imposed on the trembling Bavarians.

Wallenstein's Return; Lützen.

In the meantime the Emperor Ferdinand, in his utmost need, once more had recourse to Wallenstein. The proud duke had at first contemplated an alliance with Sweden and Saxony, to revenge himself for his dismissal. But after being kept in suspense by Gustavus Adolphus, he changed his policy, and negotiated with the imperial court with respect to a resumption of the command of the army. At first, however, he affected reluctance; and at length he undertook the chief command only on conditions which afforded him nearly unlimited power, and which placed both the regulation of all military movements, and the line of policy to be adopted in the war, entirely in his own hands. Not only did the Emperor appoint him generalissimo of all the imperial armies, and promise him the possession of Mecklenburg or some other possession of equal value; but he was also permitted to make confiscations or grants in the conquered countries according to his pleasure, to appoint new officials, and in case of opposition to appeal directly to the Emperor himself. It was now generally expected that Wallenstein would immediately expel the Swedes from Bavaria; but probably from animosity to Maximilian, the author of his former dismissal, he adopted an entirely different course, and advanced towards Bohemia, where the Saxons, after the taking of Prague, were somewhat languidly opposing Gustavus Adolphus. Not until he had reconquered Prague, and had liberated the whole country, with but little effort, from the enemy, did he pay any attention to the urgent requests of Elector Maximilian and the admonitions of the Emperor, and approach the Bavarian frontier. Scattering ruin and destruction as they went, Wallenstein's troops at last took up a strong position on a hill near Nuremberg. Never had such an intrenched camp been seen in Germany. In vain did Gustavus Adolphus offer battle to his adversary. At length, after several months' delay, during which the hostile armies stood opposed to each other, when the country had been devastated for miles round, and the abundant supplies from Nuremberg began to dwindle and fail, the Swedish king determined to make an attack on Wallenstein's camp; but the bold besiegers could not make their footing good in face of the terrible firing from the extensive lines of fortification. After heavy losses, the attempt was perforce relinquished, and the Swedes, after leaving behind them a strong garrison for the protection of Nuremberg, turned once more towards the Danube, in the hope of attracting the enemy.

But Wallenstein had other plans in view. After setting fire to his camp, he marched into Saxony, took Leipzig and effected a junction of forces with those of Pappenheim. Urgently did the threatened Elector of Saxony implore the help of Gustavus; and the Swedish king advanced once more with forced marches towards the Saale to the rescue of his undependable ally. On a gloomy autumn day, the 6th of November, 1632, the important battle of Lützen took place, in which the Swedes were indeed victorious, but with the loss of their king, who died the death of a hero on the field. He was in his thirty-ninth year; and with him the grandest and most patriotic figure vanishes from the bloodstained arena of the war. The redoubtable Pappenheim was carried from the field mortally wounded. Wallenstein broke up his camp during the night, and retreated. Thus it was that the Swedes were able to claim the victory.

The League of Heilbronn.

THE Swedish council of regency which carried on the government during the minority of Christina, the daughter of Gustavus Adolphus, decided on continuing to prosecute the war, and gave the direction of the contest to the chancellor Oxenstjerna, an energetic and sagacious statesman. Nevertheless, as the lower German States desired to emancipate themselves from the Swedish supremacy, Oxenstjerna was only able to combine the Protestant States of Franconia, Swabia, and the upper and lower Rhine in the League of Heilbronn, in April, 1633. The chief command of the army was conferred



TILLY MORTALLY WOUNDED AT THE LECH.

on Bernhard of Weimar, who had had awarded him the dukedom of Franconia and the bishoprics of Bamberg and Würzburg; the Swedish general, Horn, was also appointed with him. The war now broke out in the south and north with renewed violence. Bavaria was cruelly devastated by the Swedes; for Wallenstein, out of malice and revenge against Maximilian, refused to come to the assistance of the oppressed country. At the same time another general of the Heilbronn league, Duke George of Brunswick-Lüneburg, vigorously carried on the war in the south of Germany.

After the battle of Lützen, Wallenstein had not shown his former zeal and enterprise; the vigour of the old days seemed to have departed from

him. After some unimportant engagements with the enemy, he agreed to an armed truce, and entered into negotiations with the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg, and even with Oxenstjerna himself, which might have resulted in a peaceful arrangement; but the Catholic zealots at the court of Vienna found matter for suspicion in these negotiations. His victory over the Swedes at Steinau, in 1633, and the conquest of the fortified places on the Oder, were not sufficient to remove the unfavourable impressions produced by some of his proceedings. He set at liberty the captured Count von Thurn, the implacable enemy of the house of Hapsburg and originator of the Bohemian war; and instead of expelling the Swedes from Bavaria, as the Emperor had commanded him to do, he returned after a short campaign, to Bohemia, made his headquarters at Pilsen, and burdened and pillaged the Austrian States by quartering his ruthless soldiers in the Emperor's dominions. In the meantime, Regensburg, the bulwark of Bavaria, fell into the hands of Bernhard of Weimar, and the old episcopal city once more saw the evangelical worship performed within its walls.

However much the strategic policy of Wallenstein might be justified by experience, it nevertheless gave his numerous detractors and adversaries at the Court of Vienna many opportunities for disseminating injurious reports against him. The duke's independent attitude and presumptuous bearing also gave offence. His negotiations with Bohemian exiles, his secret intrigues with Fouquière, Richelieu's ambassador, and his refusal to assist in the Spanish designs on the Netherlands by despatching a portion of his troops to that country, at the command of the Emperor, excited grave anger and suspicion. Not the Court of Vienna, but Wallenstein's camp was the central point of European politics, where the threads of state policy united into a web of mystery; and it was not the Emperor, but the Duke of Friedland who appeared to dominate the world. Malevolent whispers and insinuations of enemies exaggerated the arbitrary negotiations for peace undertaken by the commander into treacherous designs. The monks and Jesuits hated the duke on account of his freethinking and his broad notions in religious matters, the Spaniards were indignant at his selfish policy, and the members of the League and the friends of Maximilian of Bavaria were determined to bring him to ruin. The Emperor, thoroughly alarmed at the extent of the power which he himself had injudiciously placed in the hands of an ambitious and arrogant subject, became suspicious; and as a second dismissal of the great leader of armies appeared a dangerous expedient, the Vienna Court on this occasion acted as the Sultans of Turkey were accustomed to act in dealing with disobedient Pashas. Treason was fostered among the trusted adherents of the commander-in-chief; and when the emissaries of the Court had won over the most influential of Wallenstein's generals,—Gallas, Piccolomini, and Aldringer, the Emperor pronounced Wallenstein's dismissal. Thereupon the betrayed general advanced with the remains of his army who still remained faithful, to Eger, in Bohemia, to be nearer the Swedes, with whom he meditated a junction; but he was murdered, with his three most faithful followers—Terzky, Illo, and Kinsky—by the Irishman Butler, and some other conspirators, on the 25th of February, 1634. The assassins were rewarded by the Court with dignities, honours, and wealth. On the other hand, all those who had remained faithful to the great general were put to death. The Spaniards regarded the murder of Wallenstein as "a great mercy which God had vouchsafed to bestow on the house of Austria."

The Battle of Nördlingen.

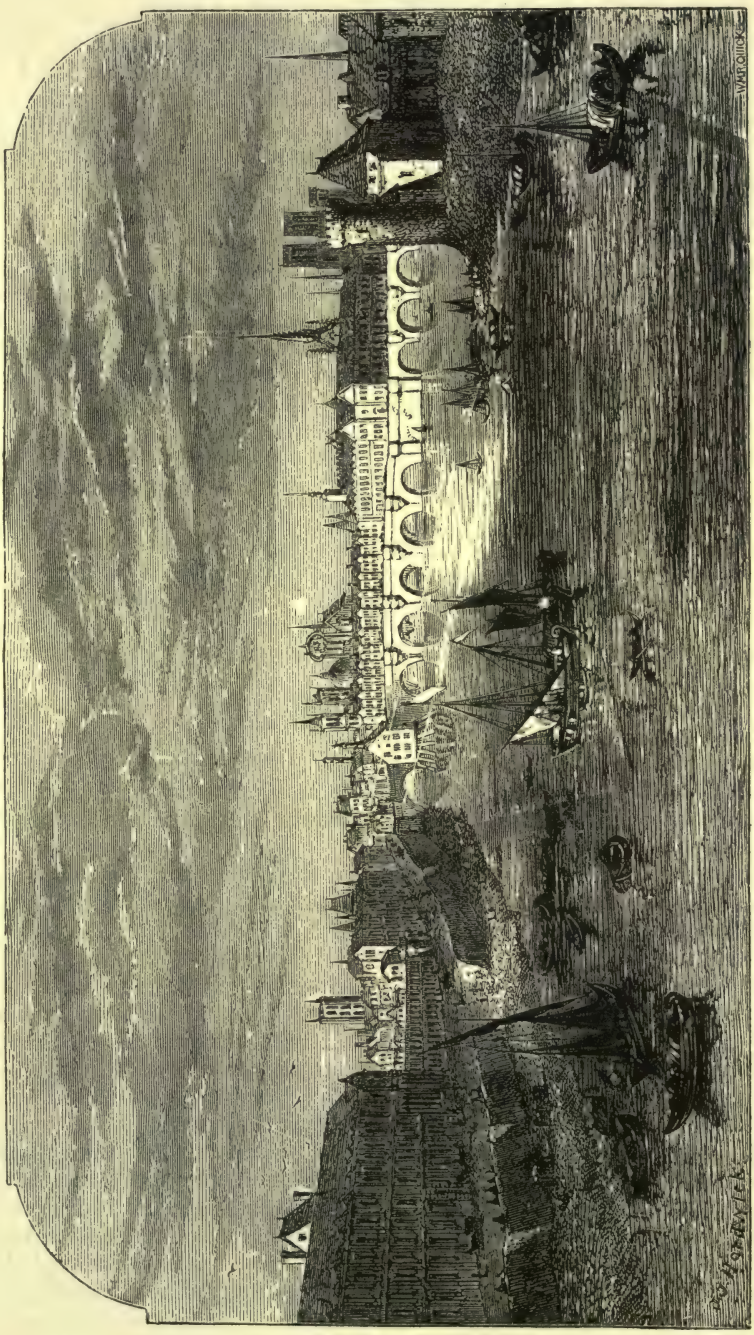
THE Emperor now conferred the chief command on his son Ferdinand, with the experienced Gallas as his adviser; and the allied imperialists marched into Bavaria, triumphantly retook the bravely defended town of Regensburg, and in conjunction with the Bavarian army gained a victory over the weakened army of the Swedes in the bloody battle of Nördlingen, in September, 1634. This battle, in which Bernhard of Weimar engaged, contrary to the advice of the experienced and sagacious leader Horn, destroyed the supremacy of the Swedes. Horn was taken prisoner; and the greater part of the ammunition and baggage of the Swedes fell into the hands of the enemy. Bernhard of Weimar advanced towards Lorraine to seek help from France. The Elector of Saxony again, however, forsook the cause of his co-religionists, and concluded with the Emperor the separate Peace of Prague, in May, 1635; in which, besides the confirmation of the Treaty of Passau, and of the Peace of Augsburg, there was confirmed to him for forty years the peaceful possession of the ecclesiastical property that had been confiscated since 1627, as well as the government of Upper and Lower Lusatia, and other districts. Most of the other States gradually joined this treaty, and only Hesse-Cassel, Baden, and Wurtemberg remained faithful to the Swedes.

The open Intervention of France.

THUS the Emperor once more gained the upper hand and was supreme throughout Germany. The Swedish troops were driven back to the coast of the Baltic, and on the upper Rhine, Bernhard of Weimar was compelled to give way to the imperial troops,—when the league which Richelieu formed with Oxenstjerna and the brave Prince of Weimar once more restored the balance of power. This great cardinal, who had just triumphantly finished the Huguenot war, kept steadfastly in view the old aim of French policy,—the lessening of the Hapsburg power, and the extension of the frontier of France towards the Rhine.

Soon the Swedish army was once more in the ascendant. Banér, the most energetic of the generals reared in the school of Gustavus Adolphus, completely defeated the Saxons near Dömitz, in November, 1633, devastated the province of Brandenburg, and gained a decisive victory near Wittstock over the imperial general Hazfeld—a victory which delivered Pomerania, Thuringia, and Saxony into the hands of the enemy. The inhabitants were now chastised with terrible severity for the revolt of their princes. The fruitful plains between the Oder and the Elbe were transformed into desolate wastes; and famine and pestilential diseases depopulated whole towns. At this moment the Emperor Ferdinand II. died, in February, 1637. His son, Ferdinand III. (1637–57), was appointed his successor, and carried on the government in a similar manner, and on the same intolerant principles, only with less energy. At this period, also, the old Duke Bogislav, of Pomerania and Rügen, died, and his possessions became an object of contention between the Elector of Brandenburg, on whom the dukedom by right devolved, by a treaty of inheritance, and the Swedes, who had conquered the territory on the Baltic, and would not evacuate it.

Ferdinand III. despatched Gallas with a powerful Austrian army against the Swedes in north Germany. This step procured success for the enterprises



PARIS IN 1650.

in which Bernhard of Weimar was engaged in connection with France on the upper Rhine. After a succession of victories, Bernhard conceived the design of establishing an independent principality on both banks of the Rhine, and of allying himself with the heroic Landgravine Amalia of Hesse. This involved him in vexatious negotiations with the French Court; and when he shortly afterwards died suddenly, in the bloom of manhood, it was suspected that he had been poisoned. Be this as it may, France ingeniously availed herself of the opportunity, by taking speedy possession of Alsace, and by enticing, with specious promises, Bernhard's army into the French service. Together with the French troops, the late duke's forces were subsequently placed under the command of the Duke of Enghien, afterwards famous as the Prince de Condé, and under that of Turenne, who conducted the war in the south of Germany against the imperial and Bavarian army, while in the north Banér successfully attacked the enemy, and visited Bohemia with all the terrors of warfare. Banér's bold project of taking the Emperor and the princes prisoners at a Diet at Regensburg failed, and he died soon afterwards; but Condé's brilliant victory at Rocroi, in May, 1643, and the capture of the important fortress of Thionville, strengthened the position of the French, who already cast covetous glances towards Flanders and the Spanish Franche-comté.

Banér was succeeded by Torstenson, who conquered Silesia, won a glorious battle near Leipzig, in November, 1642, over Piccolomini, and advanced once more towards Moravia, where he carried off the library of Olmütz, and made the Emperor tremble in his capital. He then suddenly appeared on the lower Elbe, took possession of Holstein and Schleswig, and compelled King Christian IV., who had assumed a hostile attitude towards the neighbouring country, to accept the disadvantageous peace of Brömsebro, by which Sweden obtained some provinces and islands, such as Gothland, and immunity for all its subjects from the oppressive Sound dues exacted by the Danish government. Against such an enemy it was impossible for the imperial commander to maintain the field. After a victory on Mount Tabor, in Bohemia, Torstenson marched for the third time towards Moravia; but the want of necessary reinforcements compelled him to retire to Bohemia, where, exhausted by bodily maladies, and full of disgust at the lukewarmness of his allies, he relinquished his command. He was succeeded by the brave Wrangel, who, in conjunction with Condé and Turenne, continued the war against Bavaria. After the defeat and death of the imperial Field-marshal Mercy, near Allersheim, in 1645, the way to south Germany lay open to the French; and Maximilian, anxious for the safety of his territories, concluded a truce with his enemies at Ulm; but when Turenne and Wrangel had withdrawn their forces, he once more declared himself on the side of Austria. Both generals then came forward to avenge this faithlessness, compelled the Elector to fly to Salzburg, and committed terrible devastations in his lands. His unhappy subjects had to pay the penalty of their ruler's treachery. Wrangel even contemplated a new expedition to Bohemia, where the Swedish general, Königmark, was besieging Prague, when the news of the conclusion of the Peace of Westphalia, signed on the 24th of October, 1648, put an end to further warlike enterprises. In Prague, where the war had begun, it was destined to end.

The Peace of Westphalia, and the Consequences of the War.

EVER since the year 1643 negotiations for peace had been carried on at Osnabruck between the Emperor and the Catholics on one side, and the Swedes and Protestants on the other, and at Münster between France and Germany; but the exaggerated demands of France, and other causes, had long delayed the settlement. The final points of agreement, however, were as follows: France, besides being confirmed in the possession of the bishoprics and imperial towns of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, which had been gained in the Smalkaldic war, obtained the Austrian Landgraviate in Upper and Lower Alsace, with Sundgaa, the town of Breisach, and the protectorate of the ten imperial towns situated in Alsace; but on the other hand was obliged to secure to the Imperial towns and the other free principalities in Alsace their former liberties, and the maintenance of their relations with the German empire. A sum of three million livres was the compensation which Austria received for the surrender of the old Hapsburg title of right and possession. Sweden gained Upper Pomerania, and in Lower Pomerania, Stettin and other towns, the island of Rügen, the town of Wismar and the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden; but these she held under the supreme authority of the German empire. She also received an indemnity of five millions of dollars. The eastern portion of Lower Pomerania was awarded to Brandenburg. Mecklenburg obtained as an equivalent for the cession of Wismar the bishoprics of Schwerin and Ratzeburg; while Saxony had Lusatia and four Magdeburg districts. Hesse, besides an indemnity in money, obtained the abbacy of Hersfeld and some districts of the bishopric of Minden (Schaumburg).

Bavaria was confirmed in the possession of the Upper Palatinate, with the electoral dignity. The Lower Palatinate, with the newly-created eighth electorship was given back to the son of the outlawed Frederick V., who had died almost forgotten and unnoticed in 1632. The other princes and imperial dignitaries remained in their original position, and Switzerland and the Netherlands were recognised as independent States.

But more than a century was required to efface the traces which the horrible struggle had left on the German land.



THE NORTHERN POWERS.

SWEDEN UNDER QUEEN CHRISTINA.—CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY.—THE QUEEN'S ABDICATION.—REIGN OF CHARLES X.—WAR WITH POLAND.—JOHN CASIMIR OF POLAND.—TREATIES OF WELAN, OLIVA, AND ANDRUSSON.—JOHN SOBIESKI.—WAR BETWEEN DENMARK AND SWEDEN.—FREDERICK III. OF DENMARK.—DEATH OF CHARLES X.—PEACE OF COPENHAGEN.—CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGES.—KING CHRISTIAN V.—NEW SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT.—CHARLES XI. OF SWEDEN: HIS CHARACTER AND RULE.

CHRISTINA OF SWEDEN.

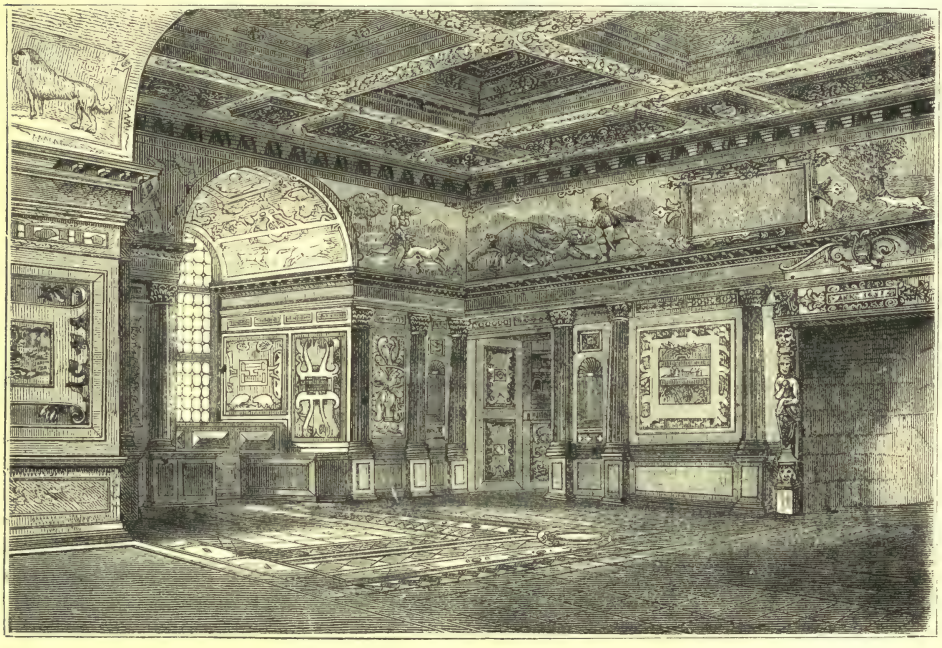


UNDER the vigorous and judicious rule of Gustavus Adolphus, Sweden had made gigantic strides, and was prosperous at home and respected and honoured abroad. During the minority of his daughter Christina, the affairs of the government were conducted for twelve years by the five highest officials, among whom Axel Oxenstierna and two of his relatives exercised the greatest influence. Under this government the nobility succeeded in extending its already important privileges, so that from that time forward a powerful aristocracy took up a position of continual antagonism against the royal power. The peasant class was poor and oppressed; the Crown had but a small revenue, which, during Christina's reign, was still further decreased, because that princess, in order to satisfy her taste for the arts and sciences, as well as her inclination for brilliant court festivals, and a liberality that degenerated into extravagance



SIGNING THE TREATY OF WESTPHALIA.

sold many of the Crown lands. By the promotion of the arts and sciences, Christina conferred great renown on her country. She herself possessed much varied knowledge, and took pleasure in intercourse with scholars and learned men, many of whom, such as Salmasius, Descartes, Heinsius, Hugo Grotius, and others, she invited to reside in Sweden. Her culture was masculine, like her character and appearance; but the rude Protestant North was uncongenial to her temperament. After an independent reign of ten years, Christina abdicated the throne of Sweden in favour of her cousin, Charles Gustavus. At a later period she abjured the Protestant religion, and was received into the Catholic Church; and after travelling through the Netherlands, France, and Italy, took up her permanent residence in Rome, where poets and artists vied in surrounding her with homage and adulation. She lies buried in St. Peter's Church. Her great fault was vanity.



THE KING OF SWEDEN'S ROOM IN THE CASTLE OF KALMAR.

CHARLES X. (1654–60).

THE immunity from taxation of the property which had been acquired by the nobility, had so diminished the royal revenues at the time of Christina's abdication, that without increasing the already excessive burden of taxation on the peasant class, it was impossible to defray the expenses of the government. Wishing to confer at least an external brilliancy on the restricted royal power, the new king Charles (X.) Gustavus of Deuxponts (Kleeburg) endeavoured to renew the warlike renown of Sweden. With this object in view, he lent a willing ear to the suggestions of a treacherous Polish vice-chancellor, and made war on Poland, which was threatened by enemies from without, and distracted by factions within its borders. The refusal of John Casimir of Poland to recognise the new Swedish king, and to renounce the claims he had inherited from his father Sigismund to the crown of Sweden,

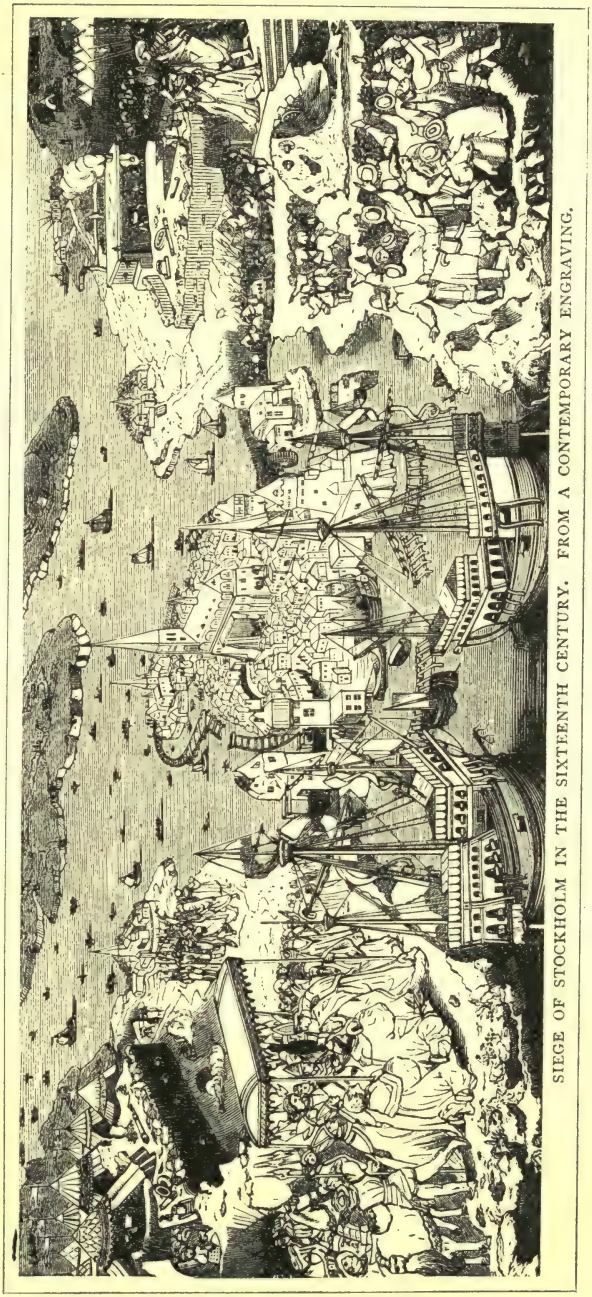
was made to serve as the feeble pretext for the war. The treacherous governors, or Starosts, of Poland and Kalisch surrendered the provinces that had been entrusted to them, to the Swedish general, Wittenberg. Charles Gustavus himself, who was ambitious of warlike fame and glory, took possession of Warsaw and Cracow, compelled John Casimir to fly to Silesia, and conquered Masovia and other districts; and after Lithuania, which had been threatened by the Russians, had also submitted to Sweden, he was able to regard himself as sovereign of Poland. The more effectually to secure his conquest, he concluded a treaty in 1656, at Labian, with the great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg and Prussia, in which the latter, in consideration of the removal of the feudal dependence in which Prussia had until then stood towards Poland, promised his assistance to the Swedish king. The independence of Poland, was threatened. The nobility took up arms; the people, who were everywhere stirred up by the Jesuits to resist the Protestant enemy, made common cause with them. Peace was concluded with the Russians and Cossacks, with whom they had previously been at war; and the Emperor, with Saxony and Denmark, apprehensive of the increasing power of Sweden, promised assistance. The fugitive John Casimir returned, and placed himself at the head of the army. Now it was that the warlike skill and bravery of Charles X. were shown in the most brilliant light. In conjunction with Frederick William, he marched forth against the united Polish army; and in the great three days' battle of Warsaw, in July, 1656, he won a glorious victory with but a limited number of troops. For the second time he was master of the country. But he was soon called away by an invasion of the Danes into Swedish territory; and after his departure the Swedish garrisons could not withstand the more numerous forces of the enemy. Poland once more obtained its independence; but in order to gain the assistance of the Elector Frederick William, was compelled to recognise the independence or sovereignty of Prussia, in the treaty of Welan, in 1657.

Three years later, John Casimir, in the Peace of Oliva, signed in April, 1660, gave up all claim to the crown of Sweden, as well as to Esthland and Liefland, and in return for these concessions received back Courland, Marienburg, and Elbing. On the other hand, the war with Russia broke out anew, and continued for seven years, until the Peace of Andrusson, in 1667, by which Russia retained Smolensk, Severia, and other conquered places. The Dneiper was declared the boundary on the side of the kingdom of the Cossacks.

In the following year, 1668, John Casimir laid down his sceptre, and retired to end his days in a French monastery. His abdication led to long and angry disputes with regard to the succession; but ultimately the heroic warrior and chief, John Sobiesky (1674–96) obtained the crown.

Charles Gustavus was in Lithuania when the intelligence reached him of the hostile invasion of the Danes into the Swedish dominions. He immediately quitted Poland, and with a small but well-disciplined army advanced with rapid marches along the coast of the Baltic to the Elbe. The Danish army offered no resistance, so that before the beginning of the winter Schleswig and Jutland, with the exception of the fortress of Friedericia, were in the hands of the Swedes. This fortress was also taken during the winter by a bold assault, commanded by Wrangel; and the king, jealous of the brilliant achievement of his general, at once set out with his army, provided with all the material of war, on an extraordinary march across the frozen surface of the Great and Little Belt, to Fünen and Zealand; and, striking terror into his enemies by his sudden appearance, ultimately compelled Frederick III. to

agree to the surrender of the Danish provinces in the south of Sweden, the Norwegian bishopric of Drontheim, and the island of Bornholm; and to the reinstatement in his possessions of the banished Danish noble, Korfiz Ulfeld, who had been the betrayer of his country. But notwitstanding the advantages gained by Sweden in the Treaty of Roeskild, concluded in February, 1658, the ambitious Charles X. was not content. The great prospect which filled his warlike mind was the idea of uniting the three Scandinavian kingdoms under his supremacy, and making himself the ruler of all the north. After a few months, accordingly, he commenced the war anew. The self-seeking Danish nobility, fearing for their possessions, counselled submission; but King Frederick III. and the inhabitants of Copenhagen declared that they would rather perish in an honourable struggle than calmly behold the disgraceful surrender of their country. The announcement of this spirited resolution, and the rewards which the king promised to all his soldiers, led to a brave resistance on the part of the inhabitants when the Swedes commenced the siege of Copenhagen. Holland brought provisions to the starving town; and the simultaneous hostile movements commenced by the Brandenburg, Polish, and Austrian troops in the Netherlands against the Swedes, which rendered a division of the army necessary, and weakened the numbers of the besiegers, delayed the conquest of the capital of Denmark. A prolonged war seemed inevitable, when the sudden death of Charles X., in 1660, caused a



SIEGE OF STOCKHOLM IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY. FROM A CONTEMPORARY ENGRAVING.

speedy change in the aspect of affairs. The Peace of Copenhagen, which was now concluded, was almost similar to the Roeskild treaty, except that Sweden surrendered Drontheim and Bornholm. Korfiz Ulfeld, who had once more acted the part of the traitor, ended his days as a fugitive in foreign countries.



Constitutional Changes.

THE death of Charles X. brought about internal changes of an important character in both Scandinavian kingdoms. In Sweden a regency was established. This government was formed of the five highest officers in the State, seconded by the Council of the Kingdom. The chiefs availed themselves of their newly-acquired position to elevate the status of the aristocracy; while in Denmark, on the other hand, by means of a bloodless revolution, the most limited monarchy in Europe was transformed into the most despotic government, and the powerful nobility were deprived of their rights.

Until that time the Danish kings had, on their election to the throne, been compelled to sign a charter, by which all power in the government was made over to an aristocratic Council of the Kingdom and to the nobility, who thus acquired considerable privileges. After the conclusion of the war, at an assembly of the States summoned to deliberate on the means of paying the heavy expenses of the contest, the nobility endeavoured to impute to the citizen class every possible crime. The ill-feeling thus provoked afforded the queen and the cunning Secretary of State, Gabel, an opportunity for the overthrow of the existing constitution (1660). The elective monarchy and the charter or "Capitulation" were abolished. It was declared that the crown should be hereditary in the family of Frederick III., male and female descendants being alike entitled to reign; and, a few years later, the Act of Sovereignty, which was drawn up by Gabel, conferred on the monarch absolute power. Nevertheless Frederick III. went cautiously to work in the task of transforming the whole plan of government. A new method of taxation, a standing army, and the raising of the rents exacted for crown domains, were the most important innovations. Under Frederick's successor, Christian V. (1670–99), the new system of government was completely organized.

These events were not without their influence on Sweden, where Charles XI. (1660–97), a wise and upright prince, had in the meantime assumed the reins of government. By the demand, which was severely enforced, for the restitution of all Crown property,—a regulation through which many a nobleman forfeited all his possessions,—the king so largely increased the revenue of the State, that the burden of public debt was considerably diminished, and it was possible to render taxation less oppressive to the people. Charles XI. ruled almost as absolutely as the Danish kings; but the "institutions" remained uncancelled, and subsequently afforded the nobility an opportunity of regaining their former power.



THE STUART KINGS OF ENGLAND

(1603 TO THE LONG PARLIAMENT, 1640).

REIGN OF JAMES I.—CHARACTER OF THE KING.—CARR, EARL OF SOMERSET, AND VILLIERS, DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM.—THE GREAT DIVISIONS OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH.—THE GUNPOWDER PLOT.—SYSTEM OF RULE.—PRINCE CHARLES.—MARRIAGE NEGOTIATION WITH SPAIN.—RUPTURE WITH THE SPANISH COURT.—MARRIAGE WITH HENRIETTA MARIA OF FRANCE.—JAMES AND HIS PARLIAMENTS.—ARBITRARY MEASURES OF THE KING.—DEATH OF JAMES AND ACCESSION OF CHARLES I., 1625.—THE FRENCH WAR.—QUARRELS WITH THE PARLIAMENT. — DISMISSAL. — PERIOD OF ABSOLUTE RULE.—STRAFFORD AND LAUD.—ARBITRARY TAXATION.—SHIP-MONEY.—TRIAL OF JOHN HAMPDEN.—PERSECUTION OF THE PURITANS.—THE LITURGY IN SCOTLAND.—REVOLT.—THE COVENANT. THE SHORT PARLIAMENT SUMMONED AND DISMISSED.—MEETING OF THE LONG PARLIAMENT.



JAMES I. CHARACTER AND PRINCIPLES.

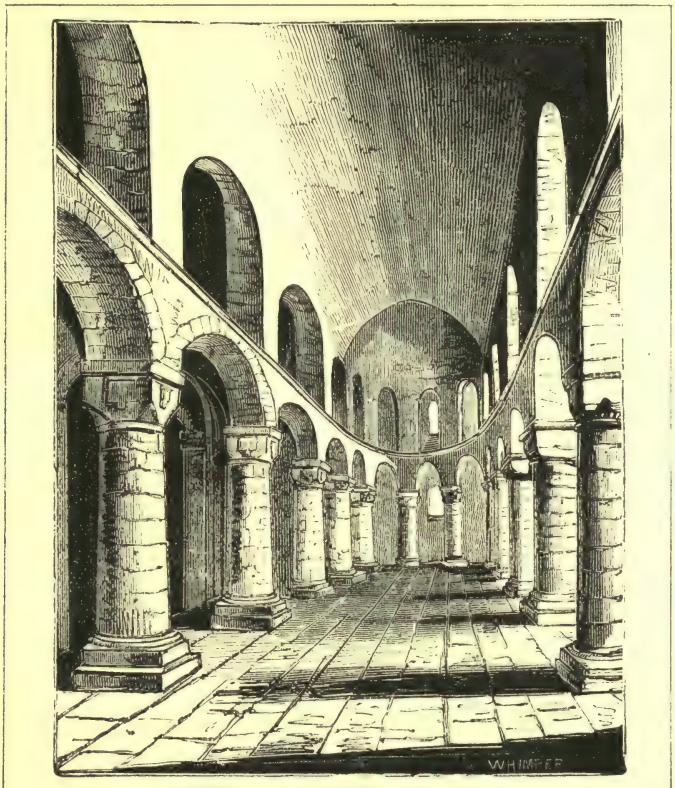
THE son of the unfortunate Mary Queen of Scotland, James I. (1603–25), had not been highly favoured by nature with endowments of mind or body. With an ill-favoured countenance and ungracious bearing he united a limited understanding, a boundless arrogance, and a one-sided and pedantic education. Brought up amid the strife and turmoil of wrangling Presbyterian preachers, he was well versed in theological learning, and entered eagerly into ecclesiastical controversies. In writing and conversation he frequently showed the acquirements of an accomplished scholar; but as a statesman and a

ruler he was shortsighted, and, in spite of his boasted "kingcraft," eminently liable to be deceived. A lover of peace from timidity of character, he sacrificed the honour of his country to preserve internal tranquillity; and unworthy favourites—especially Robert Carr, who was made Duke of Somerset, and George Villiers, the worthless Duke of Buckingham—who knew how to manage the humour of the weak monarch, were loaded with honours and riches, and, after the death of the prudent and sagacious Robert Cecil, Lord Burleigh, were appointed to influential State offices and posts of importance which should have been filled by deserving men. Of the royal prerogative he cherished the most exalted conceptions; he was firmly convinced that the king's power proceeded directly from God and was illimitable, and sought for proofs of this theory of the "right divine" in the Old Testament. For this reason the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, in which he had been brought up, was utterly abhorrent to him, because, in accordance with its democratic principles of the equality of all before God, the king was placed on a level with the lowest member of the Church community. Against the Catholic Church he was not so much prejudiced, except that it placed the Pope in the position which, according to his theory, belonged to the king alone. Of the three prevailing forms of religion, that of the Episcopal Church of England was most in accordance with his sentiments, because in it the king was regarded as the source of all spiritual power; and the Anglican bishops, by their subservience and veneration, amounting to fulsome flattery, contributed not a little to increase the propensity of the vain monarch to believe in his own infallible wisdom. "No bishop, no king!" was, from the time of the accession of the first Stuart monarch of England, the motto of all the family; and the struggle between the opposite theories of the Presbyterians and Puritans forms the central point of their eventful history. James commenced this contest by ejecting from their livings the Puritan clergy in England who had refused the oath of allegiance, and by conferring the title of Bishop on thirteen Scottish preachers, giving them the presidency in the synods and presbyteries, and causing them to be consecrated by English bishops. Soon they obtained even a higher position; and when the Scottish Parliament granted them ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and passed the law compelling ministers of religion to subscribe to the oath of supremacy, and the oath of obedience to the bishops, the episcopal system in Scotland appeared to have taken the place of the Calvinist Church of Knox. James, who was the first to adopt the title of "King of Great Britain and Ireland," sought to make Ireland also more amenable to British rule. With that view he introduced the English judicial system, confiscated the dominions of the native chiefs,



JAMES I.

whose turbulent spirit had been repressed since the putting down of Tyrone's rebellion, and sold their estates, as fiefs of the Crown, to English colonists, thus weakening the power of the landed aristocracy, and bringing money into his own coffers. The greater part of the country in Ulster and on the coast from Dublin to Waterford was confiscated to the Crown, and was sold to English Protestants, to the great injury of the old possessors. Against these new proprietors the whole anger of the Irish people was now directed.



CHAPEL IN THE TOWER OF LONDON.

The Gunpowder Plot.—Prince Charles.—The Parliament.



THREE points are especially noteworthy in the reign of James, namely, the Gunpowder Plot, the events connected with the marriage of the Prince of Wales, and the increasing opposition in Parliament. James had promised the English Catholics toleration; for he was anxious to gain their support to his succession to the throne. But so soon as this object was achieved, he arbitrarily collected from all Nonconformists the heavy poll-tax which had been remitted by Elizabeth, and employed the proceeds for the enrichment of his favourites, and in defraying the expenses of his court festivals. Certain fanatical Catholics thereupon, in the year 1605, entered into a conspiracy with a

Jesuit missionary, with the object of blowing up the king and all the members of the Upper and Lower Houses, by means of an explosion of gunpowder, which was to destroy at one blow the House of Parliament and the assembled representatives ; and after this they intended to subvert the Government. In consequence, however, of a warning letter received by the Catholic Lord Mont-



THE CONSPIRATORS AT WORK.

eagle, the attempt was discovered and frustrated. The man to whom the carrying out of the scheme had been entrusted, Guy Fawkes, was seized, imprisoned, and executed ; the other principal conspirators died fighting desperately against the men sent to capture them. The Catholics in England, besides being subjected to the payment of a heavy fine, were then forced to ender a new "oath of fidelity" to the King, in which they were compelled to

swear that they would not allow themselves, by any command or excommunication of the Papal See, to be led into treason towards the throne.

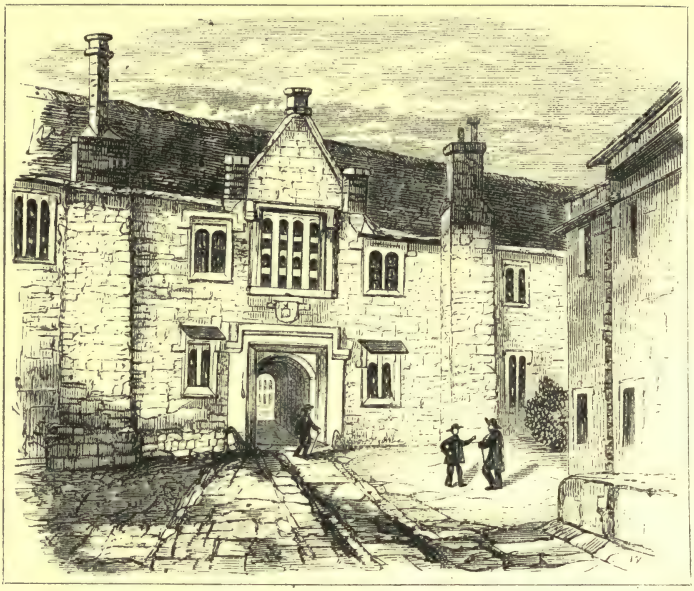
In his pride, James thought that only the daughter of a king of the first rank was worthy to become the wife of his son, and therefore opened negotiations, on behalf of his son Charles, to obtain for him the hand of a Spanish princess. The thought of a Catholic queen, however, was at that time unendurable to the English, and the project excited all the more vexation as the negotiations for the removal of all difficulties deprived the English king of all opportunity of giving assistance and support to his exiled Protestant son-in-law, Frederick V. of the Palatinate. The peace-loving James was egregiously duped by Spanish dissimulation, and allowed himself to be kept in suspense by a delusive prospect of a peaceful settlement of affairs in the Palatinate. He not only consented that the future queen and her retinue should enjoy the free exercise of their religion, but also promised that the penal statutes enacted against the Catholics should not be carried into effect. At last the Pope and the Spanish court gave their consent, and nothing further appeared to stand in the way of the marriage. At this time, however, the vain Duke of Buckingham persuaded Prince Charles to make a journey to Madrid; and the king, who, in his youth, had undertaken a similar expedition to carry home his bride, Anne of Denmark, favoured the undertaking. Under false names, Charles and Buckingham arrived at Madrid, and on being recognised were treated with great distinction. But Buckingham's frivolous and presumptuous demeanour soon gave great offence at the ceremonious Spanish court. Diplomatic complications with regard to the signing of the marriage treaty increased the difficulties in completing the negotiation. The powerful favourite quarrelled with the Count Duke Olivarez, whose influence was at that time paramount in Spain; and when he distinctly foresaw that in the event of the marriage of Charles and the Infanta, his own overthrow would follow, he endeavoured to throw obstacles in the way of the wedding, which was equally unpopular with the English and with the Spanish nations. A rupture between the courts of Spain and England soon occurred, the old enmity was re-awakened, and James, shortly before his death, made arrangements for active participation in the Thirty Years' War. Henrietta Maria of France, the sister of Louis XIII., became the wife of Prince Charles.



CHARLES I.



SPANISH SILVER FLEET, IN THE 17TH CENTURY.



THE CHARTERHOUSE, LONDON.

JAMES AND THE PARLIAMENT.

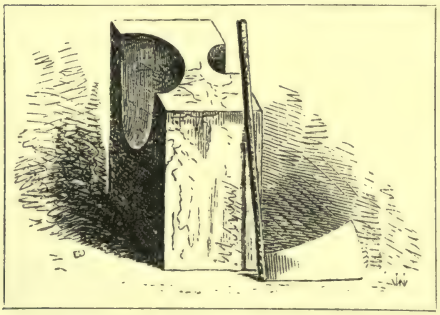


CONDUIT IN JAMES THE FIRST'S TIME.

THE Tudors had made the Parliament an obedient instrument of their despotism. James, who was imbued with an overpowering sense of the grandeur and majesty of the royal power, which he declared to be directly derived from God, was of necessity averse to removing the restrictions imposed on the assembly. But he neither possessed Elizabeth's talent for government and for restraining the growing spirit of resistance, nor could he, like her, render his despotism acceptable by the brilliancy and splendour of his reign. He was also destitute of the talent of making a concession gracefully. In order to meet the difficulties in which his extravagance plunged him, he compelled his wealthier subjects to accommodate him with gifts and with nominal loans, which he never dreamed of repaying. He sold rights of monopoly, and set up a regular tariff for the sale of the title of baronet. "It was but to ask, to pay, and to have;" and when this expedient was not sufficiently remunerative, and Parliament showed a certain reluctance in granting supplies, he imposed arbitrary taxes on all imported and exported goods, without asking the consent of Parliament. This arbitrary taxation was declared by the Commons to be an infringement of their rights. In vain did the king threaten and bluster, dissolve Parliament,

and cause the boldest speakers to be imprisoned; every fresh Parliament made the same declaration. The Commons not only resisted all encroachments on their old privileges, but generally and unreservedly expressed their disapproval of the negotiations with the court of Spain, and the neglect of the Protestant cause, shown in the withholding of help from the Palsgrave. The members of the Lower House then recorded a protest on the journals of the House, in which they declared the liberties of Parliament to be the undoubted birthright and inheritance of the people of England, claimed the right, not only of making laws and granting taxation, but also of giving their counsel in difficult matters and of bringing forward grievances; they also demanded perfect freedom of speech and personal security against arbitrary imprisonment for all members of Parliament. Enraged at what he considered the presumption of this request, the king tore up the protest with his own hand out of the journal of the House, dissolved Parliament, and caused some of the members to be imprisoned. But the spirit of opposition was roused among the people, and increased still more when Charles I.,—who in many qualities was far superior to his father, but who forfeited the confidence of the people by his arrogance and love of dissimulation,—succeeded to the throne of England, in 1625.

Charles I. and the Parliament.



WITH the reign of Charles I. commences a violent conflict with Parliament, which was twice dissolved within the first two years of the new king's rule. The proud arrogance of the king would not bend to the spirit of the time; and his haughty nature took umbrage at the parsimoniousness of Parliament, which endeavoured to make the king's need of money a method of securing the Houses against encroachments on the popular rights, and was therefore not only extremely sparing in its grants, but refused to permit the levying of tonnage and poundage by the king's authority on imported and exported goods. But when Charles was in need of supplies for his unsuccessful war with Spain, and for the support of the commanders in Germany, he levied tonnage and poundage without the consent of Parliament, extorted gifts and forced loans from his subjects, and sold domains and monopolies. He also allowed himself to be persuaded by the frivolous Buckingham into a fresh war with France, ostensibly in aid of the Huguenots, but in reality because the vain favourite desired to revenge himself on the French court for a slight to which he had been subjected by Richelieu, and which he had drawn upon himself by impertinence towards Anne, the queen.

When the war with France was also carried on without skill or success by Buckingham, and English blood and English honour were disgracefully wasted, there arose in the third Parliament such a violent storm against the unworthy favourite, that the king was obliged to recognise the Petition of Right, which was presented to him by both Houses, in order to save his minion, to whom he remained obstinately attached.

In this petition the old rights of personal security and the inviolability of the property of Englishmen were so explicitly stated, that when it was once agreed to, every arbitrary imprisonment of parliamentary members, and every



CHARLES I. INTERROGATING THE SPEAKER IN PARLIAMENT.



GEORGE VILLIERS, DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM.

despotic method of taxation, would in future be regarded as an unconstitutional encroachment. Nevertheless Parliament was still irreconcilable. Buckingham was looked upon as the cause of all the people's sufferings; his murder by Felton, in 1629, may therefore be regarded as not only the work of private revenge, but also as the consequence of the prevailing popular excitement. A new spirit had come upon the people; the third Parliament summoned by Charles was also dissolved, after a stormy sitting, in which it was declared that every levy of a tax without consent of Parliament was illegal, and that every one who paid tonnage and poundage was a traitor to his country. Nine members, including the energetic Hollis, were imprisoned. One of these, Sir John Elliot, died in the Tower of London, after vainly petitioning for some relaxation of his captivity.



SIR J. ELLIOT.

STRAFFORD AND LAUD.



OLD LONDON WATCHMAN.

THE king had been partly persuaded to this violent measure by Thomas Wentworth, once a popular leader, but one who had been induced by ambition to quit the side of the Opposition in the House of Commons, and to become a violent partisan of the king and of absolute government. He now advanced with rapid strides in royal favour, and soon became governor of Ireland and Earl of Strafford. He was a harsh but energetic and talented man, who, while he desired to give the Crown supreme power, was anxious that this power should be used for the benefit of the nation.

He therefore counselled the king to make the attempt of governing without a Parliament, and conceived the idea of establishing a standing army for the protection of the throne and the subjugation of the people. To lessen the public expenditure, peace was quickly made with Spain and France, and the cause of the Palsgrave and that of the Huguenots were alike given up; to procure money for the current expenses, the Government caused the previous taxes to be again levied without the consent or the assembling of a Parliament, and either instituted new demands or re-asserted old and forgotten prerogatives of the Crown. Monopolies were reintroduced in a more oppressive form than ever. The most important necessaries of life, such as wine, salt, soap, leather, etc., were taxed; and finally, in accordance with an old law which had been occasionally brought forward for the assembling and maintenance of the fleet in time of war and public peril, an annual levy of ship-money was demanded under new and oppressive conditions, for the royal exchequer. While the levying of the ship-money provoked general discontent, and the judicial proceedings instituted against the patriotic and resolute John Hampden, who refused payment of the tax, threw the whole country into excitement, the severity with which attempts were made to strengthen the Anglican Church Establishment and to repress Puritanism provoked great and widespread discontent. Many members of the Opposition upheld the democratic principles of the Puritans and Presbyterians, and their religious views gained ground in the same proportion as their political principles. Both their religious and political tendencies, however, were strongly opposed by Charles; and while he allowed himself to be guided by Strafford in political matters, he was advised in all ecclesiastical affairs by Laud, Bishop of London, whose doctrine of the divine right of kings and of the passive obedience which he declared to be the duty of every people, was as welcome to his arrogant nature as the bishop's inclination for church ceremonial and a pompous worship was acceptable to his secret preference for Catholicism.

The oppressive courts of High Commission and the Star Chamber decreed severe punishments against the Nonconformists. Thus Prynne, a barrister who had rendered himself obnoxious by his Puritan zeal, and especially by writing a book against stage plays, was condemned to lose both his ears on

the pillory, and to suffer imprisonment for life, because he had condemned the dancing, masquerades, etc., which were the delight of the court, as temptations of the devil. The effect of these persecutions and cruelties was to produce fresh remonstrance and resistance. Many Puritans were ready to suffer the hardest punishments for the sake of their creed. Their courage aroused sympathy, and from a despised sect they became the renowned champions of religious and political liberty. The secret inclination of the Stuarts for Catholicism, and the influence of the Catholic queen, increased the widespread distrust and discontent among the people. Puritan preachers, who had been pitilessly driven from their livings and their homes by the bigoted prelate, wandered through the country, and still further excited the angry feelings of the masses by their fanatical discourses. At this period of distress many Puritans quitted their native land to seek a haven of safety and liberty beyond the seas, and pitched their tents in the barren wildernesses of America, that they might enjoy civil and religious freedom. They were the forefathers of the Anglo-Saxon population of the present United States. Among those who intended emigrating, but were stopped when they had already embarked, by a royal warrant, were Hampden and Oliver Cromwell. "They remained," says Lord Macaulay, "and with them remained the evil genius of the house of Stuart."



JOHN HAMPDEN.

SCOTLAND.

CHARLES did not perceive that his throne rested on a heaving volcano, until Scotland, burning with religious zeal, raised the standard of insurrection. There also an effort had been made, by means of the episcopal jurisdiction imperfectly established by James, to replace the democratic presbyteries and synods by a strict government by bishops, to impede the free and bold preaching of the gospel by introducing the liturgy, or Book of Common Prayer, and to break the pride of equality and awaken ambition, egotism, and human weakness among the preachers, by the establishment of a hierarchical order. But when the first religious service, according to the English ritual, was celebrated in the cathedral church at Edinburgh, on July the 23rd, 1637, a tumult arose against the institution of the "worship of Baal." The people cried out, "Pope! Antichrist! Stone him!" threw sticks and stones at the minister, and drove him out. An old woman, Jenny Geddes, is remembered as having flung the stool on which she had been

sitting, at the head of the clergyman who, she indignantly declared, was saying the mass to her face. Amid prayers and fasting the old bond, or Covenant, for the protection of the pure religion and the Church against Papal errors, was once more renewed. A representation of the people conducted the cause of the armed nation, in defiance of the authority of the Government. The episcopate and all the institutions introduced by the Stuarts were suddenly abolished at the general synod at Glasgow, held under the presidency of the bold Henderson. Thereupon Charles decided on war; and to procure



HAMPDEN AND CROMWELL PREVENTED FROM EMIGRATING.

the necessary supplies, he again summoned a Parliament early in 1640, after an interval of eleven years, during which his rule had been absolute. But to the surprise even of the king's friends and partisans,—though the Commons were ready, under certain restrictions, to vote the desired supplies, and merely wished to make the grant in such a manner as to guard against a renewal of the despotic system called by Strafford the "Thorough," and advocated by him in Church and State,—the king suddenly dissolved the "Short Parliament" with every token of displeasure. This step was, as before, followed

by the imprisonment of the boldest speakers at the very moment when the Scots with their army were advancing across the border. In vain did the king seek help from the nobility; the Upper House did not venture to oppose the menacing demand of the people for a free Parliament; and after the royal troops had been disgracefully defeated by the zealous army of the Scots, who marched into the field with prayer and the singing of psalms, nothing remained for Charles but once more to summon a Parliament, which accordingly met in November, 1640.



THE OATH OF THE COVENANT.



THE LONG PARLIAMENT AND THE CIVIL WAR,

1640–1649.

FIRST ACTS OF THE LONG PARLIAMENT.—IMPEACHMENT OF STRAFFORD AND LAUD.—EXECUTION OF STRAFFORD.—REBELLION AND MASSACRE IN IRELAND.—CAVALIERS AND ROUNDHEADS.—ATTEMPT TO ARREST THE FIVE MEMBERS.—COMMENCEMENT OF THE CIVIL WAR —OLIVER CROMWELL.—THE SCOTS.—MARSTON MOOR.—VICTORY OF THE INDEPENDENTS.—THE PRESBYTERIANS' SELF-DENYING ORDINANCE.—SUPREMACY OF CROMWELL.—CHARLES AND THE SCOTS.—ESCAPE OF THE KING TO THE CAMP AT NEWARK. — SURRENDER TO THE PARLIAMENTARY CHIEFS. —STRIFE BETWEEN INDEPENDENTS AND PRESBYTERIANS.—TRIAL AND EXECUTION OF THE KING.



PYM.

THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

AS a consequence of the prevailing distrust towards the court, the choice of members fell principally on opponents of the Government—on Puritans, or men who did not belong to the Episcopal Church, such as John Hampden ; eager champions of religious and political liberty, such as Pym and Hollis ; religious zealots, such as Henry Vane, Haslerig, and the

learned Selden; and men resolute in opposition to prerogative, like Oliver Cromwell. This extraordinary man, a distant relative of the Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex, who, under Henry VIII., had been for a time the successor of the imperious Wolsey in the favour of the king, had shown himself from the commencement of the parliamentary struggle to be a resolute champion of civil and religious liberty, and won such general esteem in his native place, Huntingdon, that he was elected as its representative in Parliament. He soon attained a prominent position. Simple and even countrified in his dress and demeanour, and wanting in brilliant oratorical gifts, he dominated his contemporaries by the mere superiority of his mind, the energy of his will, and by his resolute, energetic character. He knew how to conceal the ardour of his soul with devout actions and language. Most of his associates in the new Parliament were, or became, Puritans; and their democratic sentiments soon spread from the Church to politics, and awakened republican theories. In place of the rule of bishop and king, they wished to see the popular power of the synods and of Parliament pre-eminent in Church and State.



ARCHBISHOP LAUD.

Instead of at once granting supplies against the Scotch "rebels," as the speech from the throne demanded, Parliament, on the contrary, entered into secret alliance with the Scots, and by the promise of money for the maintenance of the army, induced the forces to maintain their position on the border. They then directed their attacks against the arbitrary regulations in Church and State. Prynn and his companions in misfortune were declared innocent, and the judges of the Star Chamber were sentenced to a fine. Strafford, "the great apostate," whom the king had summoned from Ireland, and Archbishop Laud, were impeached for high treason and thrown into the Tower. Anxious to save the lives of his friends, the king showed signs of compliance. He chose a new ministry from among the members of the Opposition; he gave his consent to the law that in future tonnage and poundage should only be levied with the consent of Parliament, and signed the bill providing that a Parliament should be summoned every third year. Nevertheless the Lower House did not relinquish its revengeful plans against the prisoners. Strafford was accused by the Commons of various crimes, the chief allegation being that he had incited the king to make war on his subjects. His arguments disconcerted the peers; and his speech in defence produced such an effect, that it was anticipated that he would be acquitted. The House of Commons then took despotic measures; it declared by a so-

called bill of attainder, that Strafford was proved to have contemplated overthrowing the liberties of the country. The majority of the Upper House joined in this bill, and the king had the weakness to confirm it, and thus sacrifice his most devoted servant to the popular wrath. "Put not your faith in princes!" cried Strafford, "for in them is no help!" He died on the scaffold with great composure (May 11th, 1641). His comrade in misfortune, Laud, remained in confinement for three years; but the abolition of the



CHARLES I. HOOTED BY THE PEOPLE.

Star Chamber and of the High Commission, and, somewhat later, the exclusion of the bishops from the House of Lords, were the prelude to the overthrow of the hierarchical Church Establishment.

Soon afterwards Charles made a journey to Scotland, with the object of obtaining evidence of the treasonable connivance between the Parliament and the Scotch army. The Puritan members were filled with anxiety. At this moment the English nation was seized with terror and indignation by the news of a general massacre of the Protestant colonists of Ireland by the

Catholic population. This outrage, which had been brought about by the despotic proceedings of the king and by the severity of Strafford, was believed to have been instigated by the court, and especially by the queen ; and the Puritans in Parliament availed themselves of the occurrence to excite the people to a feverish state of agitation by the rumour of a coalition of the Papists, bishops, and courtiers for the destruction of their faith and liberty. Armed societies were formed for the protection of Parliament, while, on the other hand, many of the landed aristocracy and officials rallied round the king, whose rights and privileges were threatened. The Royalists were called by the people Cavaliers ; the Puritans received from their opponents the nickname of Roundheads, from their mode of wearing their hair. Pamphlets and periodicals, the recent products of a free press, and fervid discourses in churches and assemblies, kept the people in a constant state of excitement and agitation. The introduction of a bill providing that in future the control of the army and the appointment of commanders should be dependent on the decision of Parliament, caused the outbreak of the war. The king came down with an armed guard to the House of Commons on the 5th of January, 1642, and endeavoured to arrest and imprison five members of the Opposition, Hampden, Pym, Hollis, Haslerig, and Strode, on the accusation of high treason. They however escaped, remained for a few days concealed, and were then escorted in triumph to the House of Commons by the city dignitaries and an immense multitude of people. Charles could hold out no longer. He set out for York, and decided on war.

The Civil War (1642–1646).

JUST as the king had previously given cause for complaint by his violation of popular rights, so Parliament was now guilty of a similar violation of the royal prerogative. Not content with having restricted the monarchical power within legal limits, it assumed the sole legislative authority in Church and State, and usurped the whole power in the government, by demanding the removal of the higher State officers and military commanders, and by endeavouring to bring both the land and naval forces under its control, and even seeking to regulate the education and marriage of the royal children. These demands the king could not grant. He gathered round him at York those members of both houses of Parliament who were devoted to him, while the queen escaped to Holland, to seek foreign aid. But as the entire military forces of the Continent were engaged in the Thirty Years' War, no assistance could be obtained from abroad. The war therefore commenced, with unequally matched forces. For while the king sorely lacked money, and his army was often ill-provided, sometimes even wanting every necessary, the Parliament not only possessed the public revenues, but was also largely supported by private contributions. On both sides, indeed, at the first demand families brought their silver vessels to be melted down into coin, women contributed their ornaments for the cause ; and all the taxes and tithes which had been obstinately refused to the king, were willingly offered to the Parliament. Nevertheless Charles's small army, consisting of practised toops and of men used to riding and to athletic and warlike sports, was at first victorious over the raw Parliamentary forces with which the Earl of Essex marched into the field. In two battles the royal cavalry, led by Charles's impetuous nephew, Rupert, of the Palatinate, proved themselves formidable opponents. The second year also began with Parliamentary misfortunes, of which the fall of

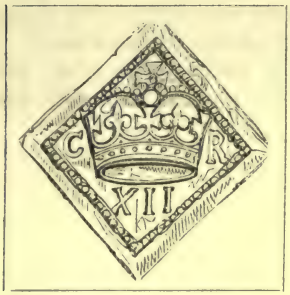
the brave and virtuous John Hampden, mortally wounded in a skirmish at Chalgrove-field near Oxford, was the most important. When, however, Oliver Cromwell, the zealous Puritan, put himself at the head of his redoubtable corps of Ironsides,—a resolute band of soldiers, who fearing no danger, and inspired with fierce religious enthusiasm, marched into the battle-field with the assurance of victory,—and when Parliament entered into an alliance with the



PRINCE RUPERT'S CAVALRY.

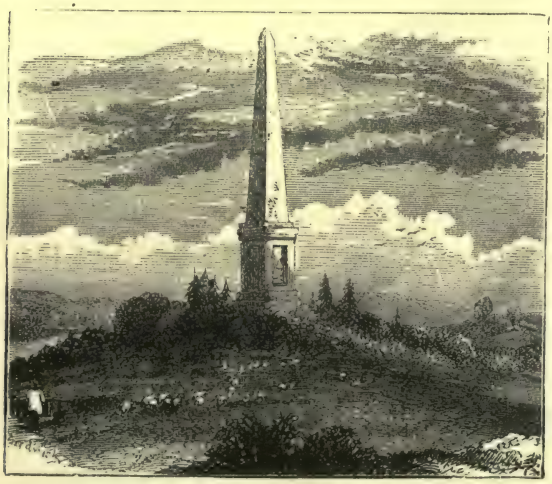
Scots, who once more marched across the border—affairs took a different turn. In the battle of Marston Moor, in July, 1644, Rupert and his fiery cavaliers were completely defeated by Cromwell's grim, resolute, imperturbable warriors. Ten thousand Royalists perished on the battle-field; and the king's faithful city of York fell into the hands of the Puritans. From that day forward Cromwell's name was omnipotent in the army, particularly as Pym was dead and Essex had been unfortunate in the field.

VICTORY OF THE INDEPENDENTS.



POCKET PIECE OF CHARLES I.

THEIR successes in the battle-field encouraged the Puritans to attempt the overthrow of the unpopular Episcopal Church Establishment, although they clearly foresaw that by so doing they would completely alienate the Upper House; but their Puritanical zeal disdained worldly considerations. The Book of Common Prayer and the Anglican liturgy were superseded by the Presbyterians' and Independents' form of worship, and the Episcopal system was replaced by the Presbyterian constitution of synods. Organs, images, and ornaments were sternly banished from the churches; painted windows were broken; monuments, which were regarded as the emblems of superstition and idolatry, were destroyed; and festivals were prohibited. The Puritan clergy, who had been ousted from their livings by Laud, were at once reinstated, and helped to keep fanaticism alive; while the archbishop himself, after long imprisonment, died upon the scaffold; and the Anglican clergy who would not submit to the new Church regulations, or renounce the use of their ecclesiastical vestments, were deprived of their livings. But a short time afterwards dissension broke out in the camp of the victors. The Independents, who had obtained great influence by their zeal, energy, and enthusiasm, and were not willing to subordinate their hard-won liberties and independence to the domination of a Church, were dissatisfied because ecclesiastical despotism had only taken another form; and they demanded that every Church community should have the power of self-direction in matters of faith, worship, and discipline; that all Church communities, consisting of the voluntary union of believers who were of one mind among themselves, should be recognised; that no one should be compelled to force his conscience to accept a universal doctrine, but that every one should worship God according to his own judgment.

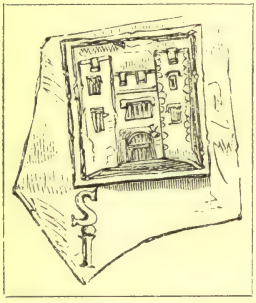


OBELISK ON THE FIELD OF NASEBY.

Dreading the increasing power of the Independents, the Presbyterian party in Parliament sought a reconciliation with Charles. But the negotiations of Uxbridge were rendered fruitless by the Puritans' demand for the abolition of the episcopacy, and for the surrender of the command of the land and sea forces to the Lower House. The Independents now went to work with even greater boldness. They procured the passing of the Self-denying Ordinance in February, 1645, in accordance with which measure no member of Parliament could hold the office of commander or

take any other post. Thus Essex was compelled to resign his command; and Fairfax, a talented general, but entirely influenced by Cromwell, was placed at the head of the whole army. Cromwell, who was the leader of the Independents, had been a zealous promoter of the Self-denying Ordinance, and he now resigned the command into Fairfax's hands. But that general at once declared that Cromwell was indispensable as a leader in the army; for that wherever he fought in the name of the Lord with his saintly warriors, there victory was always sure to be. Parliament gave its consent that Cromwell should resume his appointment; and the battle of Naseby, near Northampton, in June, 1645, where the royal army was utterly routed and scattered, and Charles's last hope was destroyed, proved what a revolution had been brought about by the energy of the Independents.

The King in Adversity; Conflicting Sects.



BEESTON CASTLE SHILLING.

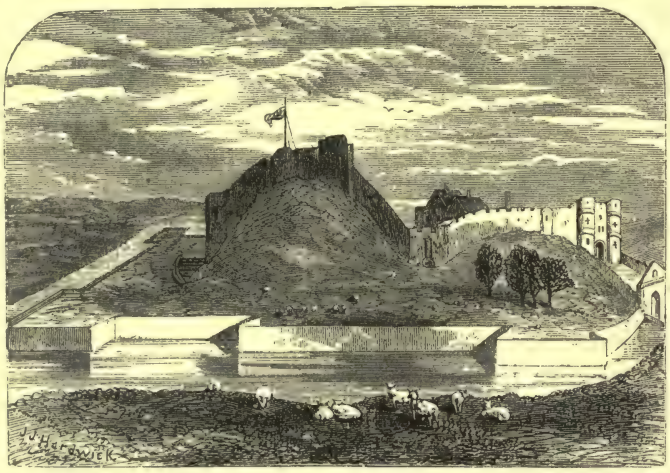
FROM that time forward the struggle assumed a more violent character. The king's cabinet of private letters, in which he appealed for help to foreign princes, fell into the hands of the enemy; and the contents of these captured documents proved most damaging to Charles and his cause. In consequence of a rumour that he had incited the Irish to rebellion, all Irish prisoners were shot down in the most merciless manner, by order of Parliament. From the Land's End to the Highlands of Scotland there raged a bloody civil and religious war; but the energy of the fanatics and Republicans gained them the victory. In vain did the humiliated king now hold out the hand of reconciliation; he was trusted no longer; and Cromwell and Fairfax made preparations for besieging him at Oxford. Charles then formed a desperate resolution. Disguised as a servant, he escaped from Oxford with two attendants, and made his appearance in the Scottish camp at Newark, in the hope of re-awakening sentiments of devotion and loyalty among his own countrymen. But all veneration for fallen greatness was extinguished among the Scots, who were completely under the influence of their severe and uncompromising ecclesiastics. They kept the king in close confinement, compelled him to attend the long services of the Presbyterian preachers, whose ordinary subject of discourse was the misdeeds of himself and his ancestors. Moreover, they entered into negotiations with the English Parliament with regard to the custody of his person. And when Charles refused to sign the Covenant,



FAIRFAX.

to abolish the Episcopacy, to consign the land and naval forces to the control of the Parliament for twenty years, and to surrender his most faithful adherents to the revenge of his adversaries, the Scots sacrificed their king for a sum of money which they declared to be due to the Presbyterian army for pay. He was handed over to the Parliament, and confined in the strong castle of Holmby, in January, 1647.

Dissensions now sprang up between the Parliament, which was chiefly composed of Presbyterians, and the army, in which the Independents were predominant in number and paramount in power, and which was completely under the control of Cromwell. In accordance with the secret command of that great chief, a certain Cornet Joyce, a devout Puritan, with a band of soldiers, carried off Charles from his place of detention at Holmby, and brought him to Hampton Court, where he was entirely in the power of the army. The Presbyterians were alarmed at this proceeding, and urged a



CARISBROOKE CASTLE.

reconciliation with the king. But the army had already approached the gates of London, and demanded the exclusion of eleven Presbyterians from Parliament. The Lower House submitted to this military dictation. The excluded members, however, among whom was Hollis, excited the citizens of London to insurrection, and these, with arms in their hands, threatened the Independents. Thereupon many members of Parliament, with the Speaker at their head, escaped and joined the army, which then marched into the capital and brought back the fugitives in triumph to their seats. The opposite party at last gave way to the overpowering influence of the Independents, who had now gained the upper hand both in Parliament and the army.

During these eventful days Cromwell appeared at one time not disinclined to set up the king once more on the throne, and to content himself with some high office under him. The army had already become suspicious; his fanatical supporters took umbrage, and the soldiers formed hostile organizations. A fanatical sect called the Levellers demanded equality of all classes,

the abolition of the rights of property, a constitution by which the people could govern themselves, and perfect religious liberty without Church communities or any established form of divine worship. But Cromwell was soon convinced, by an intercepted letter, of the false intentions and double dealing of the king. He broke off the negotiations, speedily regained his old influence, and by his resolution and energy broke up the conspiracy of the Levellers, who were equally dreaded by the Presbyterians and Independents. From that day forward irreconcilable hatred existed between Cromwell and the king. Once more, however, Charles's star appeared to be in the ascendant. He escaped to the Isle of Wight at the very moment that the Scots, ashamed of having sold their sovereign for filthy lucre, took up arms in his defence ; and an alarming agitation arose in Wales and Ireland. But Cromwell's energy was equal to the danger. With a small army he repulsed the Scots, invaded their country, and compelled them to renew the alliance with England. The Parliament heard with secret dismay of Cromwell's victory ; for Charles, expectant of aid from Ireland and the Continent, rejected the final negotiations for peace on the part of the Presbyterians.



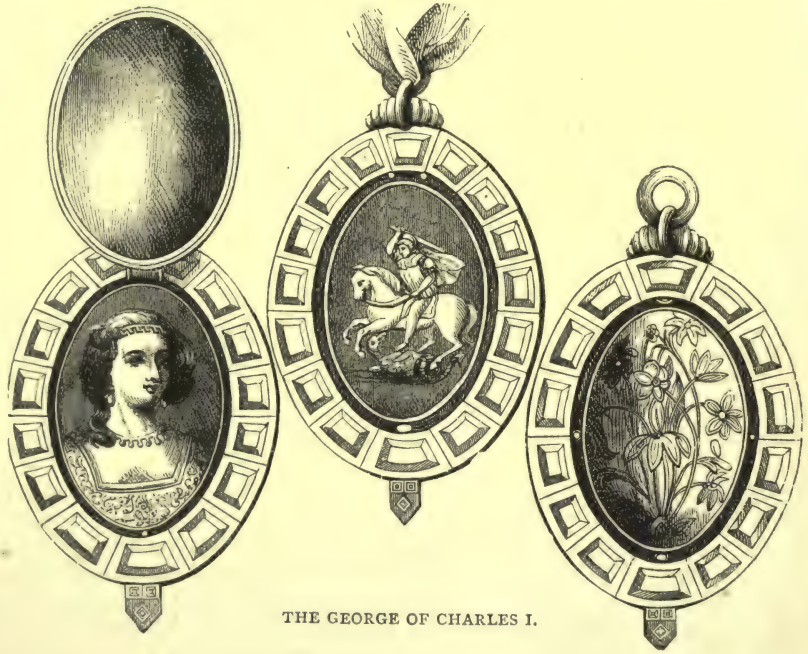
BRADSHAW.



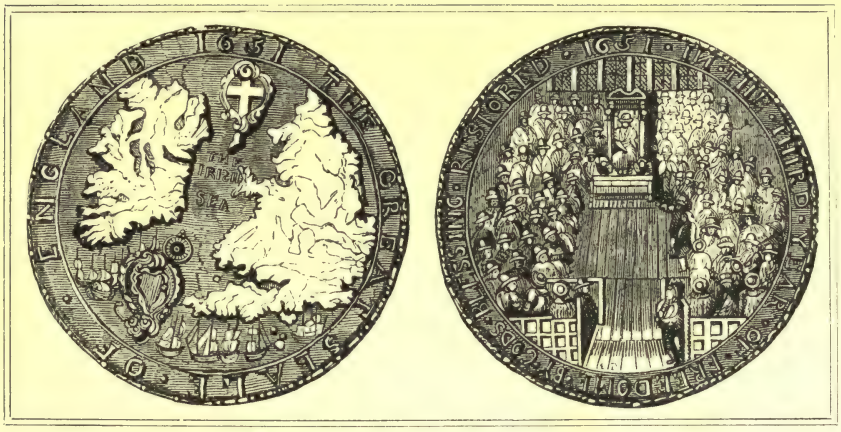
Charles's Trial and Death.

At the instigation of his fanatical son-in-law Ireton, Cromwell had already determined on Charles's death, though he continued to exhibit in Parliament the same Christian humility and devout temper. In accordance with his secret instructions, the army seized the person of the king, and placed him as a prisoner in a desolate, gloomy castle on the sea-coast. General Pride then surrounded the Parliament house with his troops (Dec. 1648), and caused eighty-one Presbyterian members, with Prynn among them, to be forcibly excluded. After this proceeding, which is known as Pride's purge, Cromwell took possession of the royal apartments at Whitehall. He was now lord and master ; and the so-called Rump Parliament, consisting of Independents, was only a feeble instrument in his hand. He at last determined to bring the king to trial for treason before a special tribunal, on the accusation of having made war on the Parliament. When the Upper House, which had dwindled down to

twelve members, opposed this design, the Independents declared that "their will alone was law, as the source of all legitimate power was in the people, and that they alone were the people's representatives." Consequently "Charles Stuart" was four times examined before a "high court of justice," consisting of one hundred and thirty-five persons, and presided over by the learned lawyer Bradshaw; and was finally sentenced to death as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and enemy of his country. He was allowed three days for preparation and for taking leave of his children; and was executed in front of Whitehall on the 30th of January, 1649. An immense crowd silently beheld the awful and heartrending spectacle of his death; not till the executioner held up the lifeless, gory head by the hair and cried aloud: "This is the head of a traitor!" did the assembled multitude give vent to their stifled feelings with a low shuddering groan.



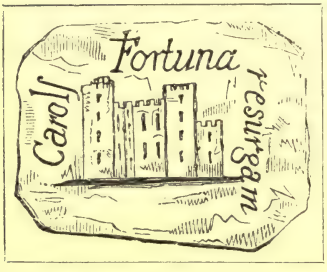
THE GEORGE OF CHARLES I.



PERIOD OF THE COMMONWEALTH.

VICTORIES OF CROMWELL.—IRELAND: DROGHEDA AND WEXFORD.—SCOTLAND: DUNBAR AND EDINBURGH.—CHARLES II. IN ENGLAND.—BATTLE OF WORCESTER.—THE NETHERLANDS; WAR WITH HOLLAND.—BLAKE, DE RUYTER, AND VAN TROMP.—CONSTITUTIONAL STRUGGLES.—"BAREBONE'S" PARLIAMENT.—THE PROTECTORATE.—RICHARD CROMWELL.—THE RESTORATION.—SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.—DEGENERACY OF SPAIN UNDER PHILIP III. AND PHILIP IV.—OLIVAREZ THE COUNT-DUKE.—REVOLT OF PORTUGAL FROM SPAIN.—JOHN IV. AND HIS SUCCESSORS.—NAPLES: RISING UNDER MASANIELLO.—DEATH OF CHARLES II. OF SPAIN.

CROMWELL'S VICTORIES.



THE Rump Parliament, which had dwindled away to eighty members, was now increased by fresh elections to one hundred and fifty, and, after the abolition of the Upper House, was invested, as the Parliament of England, with the highest power. The executive authority was placed in the hands of a Council of State, consisting of forty-two members, of whom Bradshaw was the president and Milton one of the secretaries. A high court of justice took cognizance of offences against the State, like the Star-chamber in former times. The Presbyterian Church remained the prevailing form of religion; but new sects arose, among which may be mentioned the community of Friends, popularly known by the name of Quakers, founded by the shoemaker George Fox.

The news of the king's death produced great excitement in Scotland and Ireland. The chivalrous Montrose, who had long upheld the royal banner in the Highlands, was at last defeated by the army of the Covenanters. Nevertheless, after a short time, the Prince of Wales was summoned from Holland, and recognised as king Charles II., though he was first compelled to sign the Covenant and join the Presbyterian Church. Ireland also recog-

nised the new king, and took up arms in his support. Cromwell then advanced at the head of his army against the disobedient island, and after a series of victories completely quelled the rising insurrection ; but the severities exercised at Drogheda, Wexford, and elsewhere caused his name to be remembered for ages with equal terror and hatred.

When Fairfax resigned his command, Cromwell was appointed as general in chief of the whole army, and went forth to do battle against the Presbyterian army in Scotland. After gaining a great victory at the battle of Dunbar, on an anniversary of his birthday (September 3rd, 1650), Cromwell conquered Edinburgh and advanced into the heart of Scotland. Charles II. had in the meantime been crowned at Scone, and he now formed a desperate resolution. He advanced across the border with his troops, and summoned all the adherents of royalty to his assistance. But fear and irresolution kept many from venturing their lives and property on his behalf. Thus it happened that on the 3rd of September, 1651, the anniversary of the battle of Dunbar, the Royalist army sustained a severe defeat near Worcester. This battle, which Cromwell used to designate as his "crowning mercy," rendered Charles a homeless fugitive; and amid dangers and privations, by the help of such faithful men as the Penderells of Boscobel and trusty Captain Tettersall, he escaped in disguise to France. Scotland was now compelled to submit to the sword of the Republican general Monk, and to agree to a union with the English Republic.



MARQUIS OF MONTROSE.

The Netherlands.

THE government of the British Commonwealth at first contemplated an alliance with the republic of the States General. When, however, the English ambassador was murdered at the Hague by some Royalist refugees, and the perpetrators were not expelled, a rupture took place between Great Britain and Holland. After the passing of the Navigation Act, in October, 1651, which dealt a terrible blow at the international carrying trade of Holland, the war broke out. At first the Dutch maintained their renown in naval warfare ; great battles were fought, and the Dutch naval heroes, Van Tromp and De Ruyter sailed up the Thames and committed devastations on the shores. Soon, however, the English navy, which had been neglected under the Stuarts, received a powerful impetus ; the glorious days of the Armada returned ; and the English admiral Blake gained a victory in a three days' battle over Van Tromp and De Ruyter in 1653. Monk, who was equally experienced and successful in land and sea battles, increased the renown of

England by new naval victories. Holland was obliged to conclude a disadvantageous peace in April, 1654, to expel the Stuarts from the country, and to exclude the youthful prince William of Orange, son of a daughter of Charles I., from the Stadtholdership. The Navigation Act, however, remained in existence. A war with Spain also had a successful issue for Great Britain. The harbour of Dunkirk, then once more in the possession of the Spaniards, and the fruitful island of Jamaica, were added to the foreign territory of the republic.



CROMWELL TURNING OUT THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

Constitutional Struggles.

THE ambitious schemes of Parliament now filled Cromwell with apprehension for the maintenance of his power; he therefore decided on dissolving the assembly. He surrounded the House with his troops, turned out the members by force, and caused a fresh assembly to be summoned, which was nicknamed the Barebone Parliament, from Barbon of Fleet Street, one of the members. The new members, however, by their projected reforms, excited a strong feeling of antagonism, and Cromwell took advantage of their unpopularity to dissolve Parliament once more. A new Constitution was then

drawn up by General Lambert. A Parliament was to be formed of 400 members and summoned every three years; and in 1654 Cromwell was appointed Lord Protector, with the right of electing his successor. As Protector, Cromwell established a rule of power and renown at home and abroad. France entered into an alliance with him; Savoy was compelled to desist from the persecution of the Waldenses, when, as the protector of Protestantism, he exerted himself on their behalf; Holland adopted a conciliatory policy; and the English fleet rode triumphant in the Atlantic, and gained the victory completely over the power of Spain. At home, on the other hand, Cromwell had many opponents among the Republicans. Power in the hand of a single individual, who was not a legitimate heir to the throne, excited jealousy and discontent. For this reason Cromwell began to aspire to the royal title. Parliament was won over; but the opposition of the officers and of the army compelled the Protector to relinquish the design. A prey to gloomy suspicions, and saddened by many losses, especially by the death of his favourite daughter, Mrs. Claypole, and in constant dread of conspiracies, Cromwell died on September the third, 1658, on his birthday, which to him had always been a day of good fortune. He passed away in the firm belief that the grace of God had been vouchsafed to him.

Renewed Conflict, and the Restoration.



GENERAL MONK.

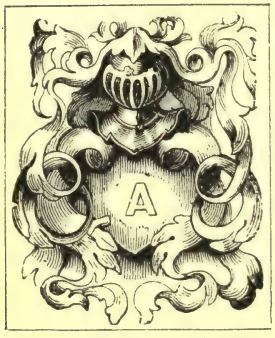
OLIVER'S son, Richard Cromwell, a weak and frivolous man, succeeded to his father in the office of Lord Protector. His quiet and domestic qualities, however, unfitted him for the high office he was called upon to fill, and he was soon embroiled both with the Parliament and the army, which was led by Monk and Lambert. The military power triumphed in the struggle; Parliament was dissolved, and the old Rump Parliament was again summoned. Richard Cromwell was compelled to abdicate, and was glad to make his escape from the country. Soon there was a deadly quarrel between the army and the Rump Parliament, in which the energetic Haslerig once more raised his voice. Parliament was again dissolved by force; discontent and confusion prevailed everywhere, and a fresh civil war threatened to break out. The question whether it was practicable to restore the royal family to the throne began to occupy all minds. General Monk had already entered into secret negotiations with Charles Stuart, who was wandering with his exiled court in various places in the Netherlands; but it was not until the Long Parliament was replaced by a new assembly, consisting chiefly of royalists, that the restoration of the Stuarts was finally decided on. The blind poet Milton in vain raised his voice in favour of a republican Constitution; Monk, supported by the people, who longed for peace and order, and were accus-

tomed to monarchical institutions, offered Charles the royal crown, without placing any restrictions on his power. An amnesty and freedom of conscience were the only stipulations which the new king had to guarantee on his triumphant entry into London, on May 29th, 1660; and he did not keep faith even in this moderate concession. The English Church recovered again all its rights and benefices; the power of the bishops prevailed once more in England and Scotland; and the renewal of the Act of Uniformity compelled all to conform to the rites and accept the doctrines of the Episcopal system. In consequence of this, upwards of two thousand Puritan ministers lost their livings. The purchasers of confiscated property were driven from their newly acquired possessions without compensation. Such a system of revenge created a new breach between throne and people, and laid the basis for a second revolution.



JOHN MILTON.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.



ALL through the reign of Philip III. (1598–1621) Spain afforded a sorrowful picture of the deepest degradation. The king was governed by an all-powerful favourite, the Duke of Lerma, who squandered the State revenues, while the greatest distress and want prevailed throughout the kingdom. Trade and industry fell into the hands of strangers, and oppressive taxation drained the resources of the kingdom. Still more lamentable was the condition of the country under Philip IV. (1621–65), in spite of the efforts made by the powerful minister, the Count-Duke Olivarez, for the removal of abuses. In order to defray the cost of participation in the Thirty Years' War in Germany, and the campaigns in Italy and the Netherlands, it was necessary to levy fresh tolls and imposts. Crown property was sold, the colonies were drained of their wealth, and the right of appointing to benefices was assumed by the Crown. At last, when a disastrous war broke out with France, Olivarez decided to include the provinces of Catalonia and Arragon under the same constitution as Castille, and, by the removal of all special provincial institutions, to introduce a uniform and universal method of government. The Catalonians protested, and a rising took place in Barcelona and the surrounding country. The French Government afforded the insurgents assistance, and an obstinate civil war took place which lasted ten years. France was on the point of extending her possessions as far as the Ebro—for the simultaneous rebellion of Portugal, Andalusia, and Naples occupied the warlike forces of Spain; but the internal disturbances of France under the ministry of Mazarin preserved Spain from dismemberment. Portugal alone shook off the heavy yoke of Spanish despotism.



WEDDING CASKET OF PHILIP III. OF SPAIN.

PORTUGAL'S REVOLT FROM SPAIN.

IN the preceding period Portugal had been thoroughly roused into a state of excitement by the presumptuous arrogance of Spanish governors and officials, and by the unjust imposition of taxes. Following the example of Lisbon, the whole kingdom rose in insurrection; and finally the Duke of Braganza, of the old royal family, ascended the throne of Portugal with the title of John IV. (1640–56). The European powers recognised the revolution; only the Papal See refused to acknowledge the restored kingdom, out of regard for Spain, for twenty-eight years. John IV. maintained himself without great effort against the feeble attacks of Spain, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Alphonso VI. (1656–67). But this king's weakness, incapacity, and immoral life brought on him the contempt of his people, and he was at last induced to abdicate the throne by Don Pedro, his younger brother, who assumed the office of regent until his death, and was then proclaimed King Peter II. (1683–1705). During his regency a peace was concluded with Holland, which secured to the Portuguese Brazil and the rest of their East Indian possessions. The war with Spain was also zealously prosecuted, and ended in the recognition on the part of the Court of Madrid of the independence of Portugal, in the Peace of Lisbon in 1668. The securing of the Portuguese

throne was, however, disadvantageous to the liberty of the nation. The Cortes, which had obtained great power during the Revolution and the consequent wars and conflicts, soon proved troublesome to the princely house of Braganza. By degrees it ceased to be convoked, and King John V. (1705–50) reigned like a sovereign "who is king by right and by the will of God."

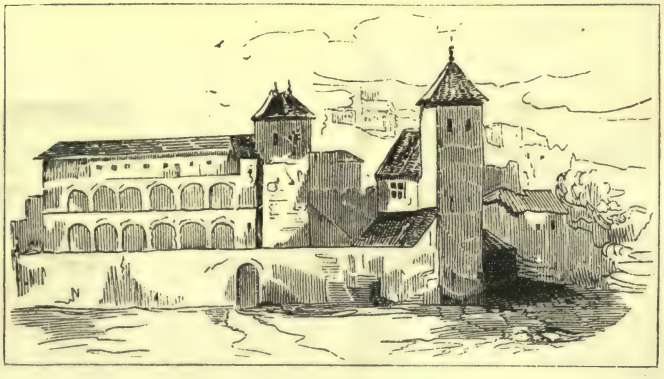


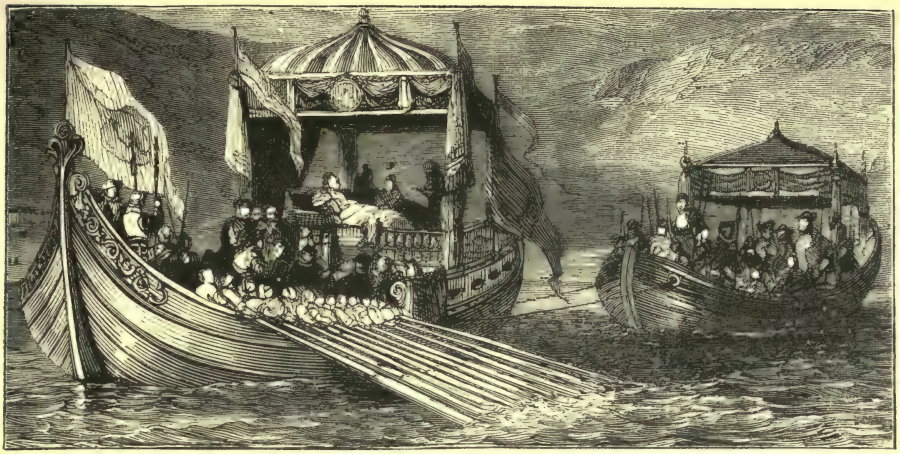
EXPULSION OF MOORS FROM SPAIN.

The insurrection of Catalonia and Portugal brought about the overthrow of Olivarez, and the elevation of Don Luis de Haro to the premiership. Soon the oppressive taxation and the recruiting for the army excited threatening agitations in Naples and Sicily. The indignant populace rallied under the leadership of a fisherman of Atrani, called Tomaso Aniello, or Masaniello, took possession of the capital, and compelled the viceroy to seek

protection in the citadel (1647). Masaniello subsequently fell a victim to an attack of insanity, consequent, it is said, upon a dose of poison ; nevertheless the rebellion was not repressed, and Naples was governed as a republic. Not until the Spanish Government had recalled the unpopular vice-king, and lessened the burden of taxation, did tranquillity gradually return.

Philip IV. was succeeded by his youthful son, Charles II. (1665–1700), for whom the new king's mother acted as regent. When, however, the dowager queen placed her entire confidence in a German Jesuit named Neidhard, the Spanish national pride was roused. Neidhard was summoned to Rome, but only to make way for an unworthy and incapable lover of the queen-mother. When the king at last assumed the reins of power, the condition of the country was but little improved. In dire want of money, the Government, both at home and abroad, was without power or authority ; and at the same time there was an ambitious monarch on the throne of France, who wrested one tract of country after another from the Spanish kingdom, until at last he stretched out his hand to grasp the whole. When Charles II. died childless, the Hapsburg line became extinct in Spain, and the disastrous War of Succession was brought about.





FRANCE UNDER RICHELIEU AND MAZARIN, AND LOUIS XIV.

REGENCY OF MARIE DE MEDICIS.—CONCINI, MARSHAL D'ANCRE; HIS ASSASSINATION.—LOUIS XIII. AND DE LUYNES.—SUPREMACY OF RICHELIEU; HIS POLICY OF ABSOLUTISM.—LA ROCHELLE AND THE HUGUENOTS.—FOREIGN POLICY OF RICHELIEU.—CARDINAL MAZARIN, THE PUPIL OF RICHELIEU.—THE FRONDE RIOTS.—ANNE OF AUSTRIA.—END OF THE FRONDE DISTURBANCES.—MAJORITY OF LOUIS XIV.—COMPLETE TRIUMPH OF MAZARIN AT THE PEACE OF THE PYRENEES; HIS DEATH.—LOUIS XIV. AND HIS MINISTERS AND GENERALS; HIS WARS.—THE SPANISH WAR, 1662–1668.—PEACE OF AIX LA CHAPELLE.—THE DUTCH WAR, 1672–1679.—INVASION OF THE NETHERLANDS.—DISTRESS OF THE DUTCH.—MURDER OF THE BROTHERS DE WITT.—WILLIAM OF ORANGE.—SPIRITED RESISTANCE.—BRANDENBURG AND THE GREAT ELECTOR.—FEHRBELLIN.—THE PALATINATE.—PEACE OF NYMEGUEN.

MARIE DE MEDICIS AND LOUIS XIII.



BY a decision of the Parliament of Paris, Marie de Medicis was appointed regent during the minority of her son, Louis XIII. A hostile party, however, soon arose, headed by the Prince de Condé, who, indignant at the power exercised by the queen's favourites, the Italian Leonore Galigai and her husband the Marquis d'Ancre, endeavoured to bring about a change in the administration. By means of gifts and annuities from the public treasury the weak queen at first purchased peace and tranquillity, which induced the Duke of Sully to take leave of "the temple of the goddess Mammon" in a haughty manifesto, and to retire to his province of Poitou. In vain did Louis XIII. summon for the last time the Estates of the empire;



MURDER OF CONCINI, MARSHAL D'ANCRE.

the prevailing discontent prevented any result being arrived at; the nobility and clergy had the upper hand, and the tyranny of Marie and her favourites continued. At last Louis XIII., at the instigation of his friend and comrade Luynes, determined to make a stand against the supremacy of the presumptuous foreigners, and was finally induced, by representations as to the dangers which threatened himself and his empire, to give his consent to the assassination of the Marshal d'Ancre. The Italian was murdered at the entrance of the Louvre; the queen-mother was banished to Blois; and Armand Richelieu, bishop of Luçon, was compelled to quit the service of the State. But Louis XIII. was not independent enough to dispense with foreign guidance; and Luynes now filled the post held by Marshal d'Ancre, attained to the dignities of duke and Constable, and disposed of the treasures and offices of the State according to his pleasure. The nation, however, gained nothing by the exchange; de Luynes was as avaricious and incapable as his predecessor the Italian; and the nobles, jealous of the supremacy of the new favourite, entered into an alliance with the queen-mother. Two courts and two factions thus stood opposed to each other. It is true that Richelieu brought about an outward reconciliation between the mother and son, and thus gained for himself the cardinal's hat and paved the way for his return to the service of the State; but the distrust and ill-feeling continued. And the party disputes of the nobles took an even more serious turn, when the Huguenots, indignant at the frequent violation of the Edict of Nantes, took up arms, and several nobles, in particular de Rohan and Soubise, placed themselves at their head. During the war—which, on account of defective weapons and equipments, proved disastrous to the Huguenots—de Luynes died (1621), to

the joy both of the nation and the king, who was already wearied of him. Soon afterwards Richelieu entered the Royal council, and through him the State received a powerful impetus.

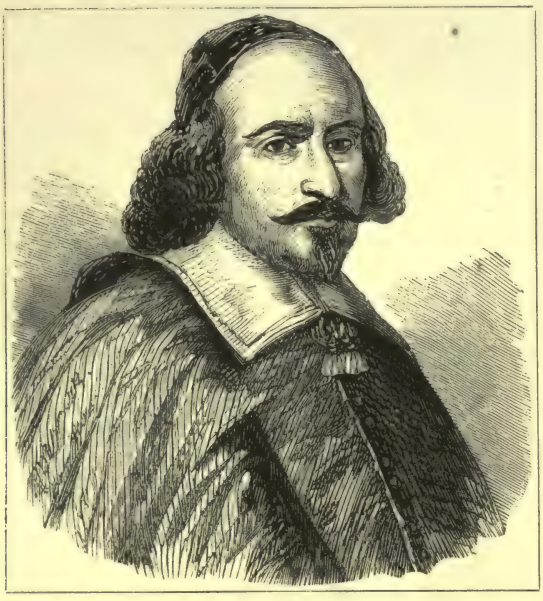
RICHELIEU.



LOUIS XIII.

THIS great statesman retained for eighteen years an almost dictatorial power over the kingdom and the court, although he was no favourite with the king, and was unpopular with the queen and the nobility. His efforts were directed to the extension and consolidation of the power of France abroad, and to the elevation and strengthening of the royal power at home. To attain the first object, he returned to the old policy of the kings—aimed at the weakening the Hapsburgs—secured the influence of France in Italy, entered into alliances with the enemies of the Emperor in Germany, gave his support to the Dutch, and attacked Spain on the northern and southern frontier. His home policy aimed at the annihilation of all limitations and control of the royal power. With this object in view, he attacked the Huguenots, who had formed an almost independent federal State in the south and west of France, conquered their stronghold La Rochelle (1628) after a prolonged siege, deprived them of their political power and independent republican institutions, but granted them in the Edict of Nimes religious liberty and equal rights with Catholic subjects. He also attempted to break the power of the nobles; and when the queen-mother, Marie de Medicis, and her second son, Duke Gaston of Orleans, conspired for the overthrow of the hated cardinal, the queen was compelled to quit the kingdom, and the duke was overcome with arms in his hand, and was compelled to see his most faithful supporter, the brave Duke de Montmorenci, die by the hand of the executioner at Toulouse. Against the aristocracy in Parliament and the officials Richelieu also directed his attacks. By the introduction of edicts which proceeded from the minister himself, he weakened the power of provincial officials, and by the establishment of extraordinary courts of justice for political offences, he lessened the business sphere of the parliamentary courts. Thus, out of all the follies and conspiracies of political parties in France, as well as out of the weakness of the German Empire, and the feebleness of Spain, Richelieu made capital wherewith to strengthen the supreme power of the king. He also took up the position of lawgiver with regard to French literature, and by the establishment of the French Academy, consisting of forty members, endeavoured to create a supreme court of taste and culture.

MAZARIN AND THE FRONDE.



MAZARIN.

IN December of the year 1642 Richelieu died, hated and feared by king and people. Louis XIII., a prince without either great vices or great virtues, and dependent on any one who knew how to obtain his favour, followed him to the grave, after a few months, in April, 1643. In accordance with his last desire, a regency was then established, during the minority of his son, in which Queen Anne of Austria, a sister of Philip IV. of Spain, held only a subordinate place, and of which the Italian Mazarin, the inheritor of Richelieu's office and political principles, was the practical head. Mazarin's administration was, however, unpopular with the nobility, and they soon formed a party, with the Duke of Beaufort at their head, with the object of annulling the testament of Louis XIII., and placing the regency solely in the hands of the queen. But Anne was not inclined to submit to those limitations of the royal power which Richelieu had set aside. Scarcely was she appointed regent, than she took as her adviser Cardinal Mazarin, the diplomatic, subtle, and ambitious statesman who alone seemed to hold the threads of policy in the labyrinth of European state-craft. Mazarin endeavoured to justify her confidence by the greatest devotion to France. The deceived nobles now allied themselves with the Parliament, to bring about the removal of the minister; and their agitation gave rise to the War of the Fronde (1648–53). This war was commenced by arbitrary imprisonment of some members of Parliament (Blancmenil and Broussel), who opposed Mazarin's irregular method of taxation; the citizens of Paris rose in rebellion, erected barricades, and compelled the surrender of the prisoners. The most prominent members of the popular party were the intellectual Paul de Conti, and Cardinal de Retz, who made common cause with the Parliament in demanding the dismissal of Mazarin. The queen escaped with her family and with the outlawed and unpopular minister to St. Germain, and left the great Condé (duc d'Enghien),—who had distinguished himself in the Thirty Years' War by the victories of Rocroy and Sens against the Spaniards in the Netherlands,—to carry on the conflict with the citizens in the capital; but in the end the court found itself compelled to surrender; and concluded a peace with Parliament, in which it was stipulated that the taxes were to be lessened, and the personal safety of members of Parliament against arbitrary imprisonment was secured. Condé now behaved with arrogance and presumption towards the court, on the strength of the services he had rendered; and the queen, in order

to effect his overthrow, entered into negotiations with the heads of the Fronde, which resulted in the imprisonment of the Prince, with his brother Conti, and his brother-in-law Longueville. This unnatural alliance, however, could not be of long duration; the clamour for the dismissal of the minister became more and more ominous, and the cardinal at last found himself obliged to quit France for a time. He however retained the unalterable regard of the queen, who treated him with such affection that a secret marriage was even suspected between them. He now exercised as much influence from Cologne, where he had taken up his residence, as he had formerly done in Paris; and when Condé persisted in his implacable animosity towards the queen, he at last made preparations for marching to Paris at the head of a large and devoted army.



THE FRONDE RIOTERS IN THE PALACE.

Parliament now set a price upon his head; and the great Condé, who was once more regarded with suspicion, entered into an alliance with the Fronde, and, in conjunction with the Duke of Orleans, raised the standard of civil war at the same time that the youthful king Louis XIV. attained his majority and assumed the reins of government (1651). A violent struggle commenced; the citizens of Paris took part with the prince and his adherents; but Condé, after the celebrated battle in the suburb St. Antoine, was compelled to withdraw to the south, and the Royalists soon asserted their supremacy in the capital. Mazarin returned in triumph; at the gates of the capital he was received by the king and the youthful nobility; and soon afterwards Bordeaux, the headquarters of the insurrection, also opened its gates to him.



MAZARIN'S TRIUMPHAL ENTRY INTO PARIS.

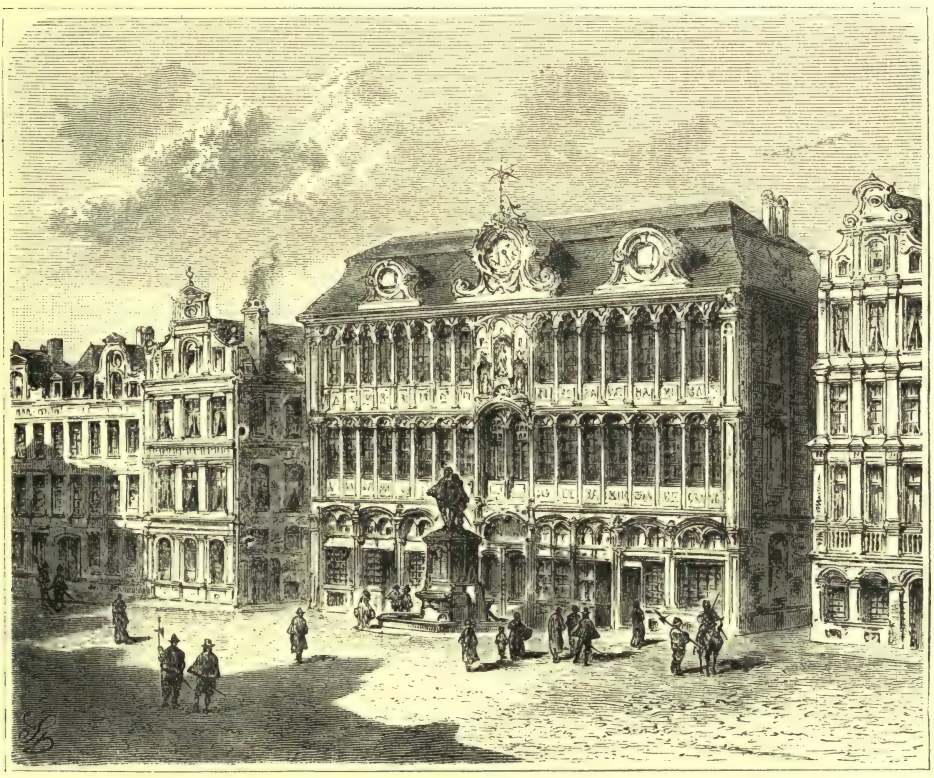
MAZARIN'S DEATH.



LOUIS XIV.

MAZARIN'S triumphal entry into Paris was the signal that the absolute royal power, with the aid of the military forces, had proved victorious, and that henceforth the will of the monarch would be paramount. For six years the minister enjoyed in France and Europe an influence such as Richelieu had scarcely possessed. Cardinal de Retz and Condé were compelled to leave the country; Mazarin's nieces, Italians without name or position, were richly dowered, and were sought in marriage by distinguished suitors; and the members of Parliament were compelled to submit to his mandates. Louis XIV. was now able to assert the principle: *L'État, c'est moi.* The peace of the Pyrenees with Spain was Mazarin's last achievement (Nov., 1659). By this treaty

France obtained, in the north, Artois and Arras, and several places in Flanders and Luxembourg; in the south, Perpignan and Rousillon, with the Italian Pignerol; and Louis, who, at the earnest solicitation of the cardinal, sacrificed his affection for Mazarin's beautiful niece for the welfare of the State, obtained the hand of the Infanta Maria Theresa. Soon afterwards the minister died (March, 1661), leaving behind him an immense property, valuable books and works of art, and splendid palaces and gardens. His death occurred at the moment when Louis was beginning to weary of him, and longed to take the reins of government in his own strong hand. Mazarin's niece Olympia, who was ultimately married to the Count of Soissons, of the Savoy-Carignan line, was the mother of Prince Eugene. Long held in favour by the king, she subsequently fell into his ill-graces, and took up her abode at Brussels.



THE "BRODHUIS" IN THE MARKET-PLACE, BRUSSELS.

LOUIS XIV. AND HIS MINISTERS AND GENERALS.

IN Louis XIV. (1643–1715) the royal supremacy reached its highest point. The whole public life revolved round the court and the person of the monarch. To estimate the various aspects of the long and brilliant reign of Louis XIV., the four leading characteristics of his nature must be kept in view;—desire for power, pride, love of splendour, and religious devotion. The first led him to plunge all Europe into ferment by four bloody wars; his pride made him claim precedence for the court of Versailles; his

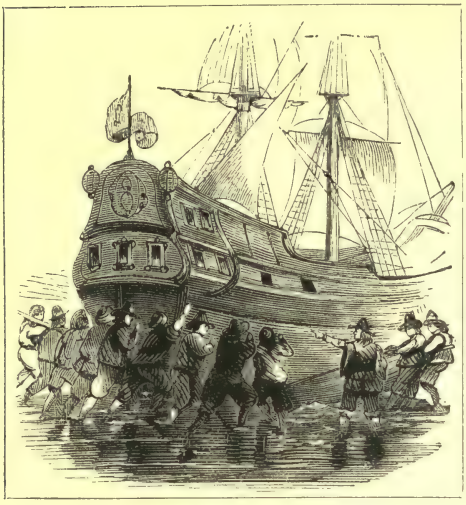
love of splendour made France the model of taste in art, literature, fashion, and social institutions ; and the religious devotion, which now and then penetrated his sinful life, impelled him to the persecution of the Huguenots. All his actions, moreover, had their origin in the aristocratic temper of the despot, who also gave evidence of his love of governing by enduring no prime minister after Mazarin's death, and by compelling immediate reference to be made to himself by all the different ministers. The most distinguished servants of the Crown at this period were Colbert, the controller-general, who administered the finances of the kingdom with such wisdom, that he not only procured money for the costly wars, for brilliant festivals, and for the bribery of foreign ministers without oppressive measures, but also gave fresh impetus to the industries of France by encouraging manufactures and commerce; the chancellor Le Tellier, who undertook the administration of home affairs ; and his ambitious son the war minister, Louvois (1666), famed for his new and excellent organization of the army. Colbert's son also, the Marquis of Seignelai (died 1690), and his brother Croissy Colbert, now won high distinction as ministers. The royal troops were commanded by Turenne, Condé, Luxembourg; and Du Quesne and Tourville conferred great renown on the naval power.

The First Two Wars.—The Spanish War (1667–1668).



After Louis XIV. had devoted the first years of his reign to forming alliances with the Princes of the Rhine, and to asserting the pre-eminence of France over England, over Spain, which yielded the precedence to the French ambassador, and even over the Pope, he seized the opportunity occasioned by the death of his father-in-law Philip IV. of Spain, to lay claim, in the name of his wife, to the Spanish Netherlands. He himself subjugated with but little trouble the free dukedom of Burgundy (Franche-Comté), while his generals made easy and rapid conquests in Flanders. The impotence of the Spanish Government during the minority of the Spanish king Charles II., and the dissensions of the Orange and Republican parties in the Netherlands, favoured the enterprise. The rapid advance of the ambitious king meanwhile filled the Dutch with apprehension. Under the mediation, therefore, of the British ambassador, Sir William Temple, a league was formed with England, which, after Sweden had joined it, was called the Triple Alliance, and which aimed at the maintenance of the Spanish rule in Flanders and Brabant. In consequence of this, Louis XIV. found himself compelled to agree to the Peace of Aix la Chapelle (May, 1668), in which the conquered Dutch towns of Charleroi, Douai, Tournai, Courtrai, Lille, and Oudenarde remained in the hands of the French, but Franche-Comté was given back to the Spaniards.

The Dutch War (1672–79).



EVEN before the declaration of war against the States General, Louis had taken possession of Lorraine, whose duke, Charles III. (IV.), alarmed at the aggressive proceedings of France, had entered into an alliance with the Dutch. The king now marched at the head of a well-equipped army commanded by the excellent generals Condé, Turenne, and Vauban, through the territory of the Elector of Cologne, who had allowed himself to be persuaded by the ambitious Fürstenberg into an alliance with the enemy of the Empire "for the sake of the Catholic religion," forced his passage across the Rhine near Tolhuis, and penetrated in rapid marches into the heart of the States General. Holland was now in dire perplexity. Many of the inhabitants escaped to Zealand, and even to Hamburg and Denmark. The Republicans, who had hitherto controlled the State, had been more intent on the extension of the naval power than on the maintenance and increase of the land forces; and though the great Elector of Brandenburg, the uncle of the young William of Orange, out of apprehension for his hereditary lands and for the threatened Evangelical faith, espoused the cause of the oppressed nation, neither his forces nor the Dutch troops were able to resist the superior strength of the enemy. Liége, Utrecht, and other towns fell into the hands of the invaders; French dragoons already penetrated into the province of Holland, and approached within two miles of the capital. The terrified Republicans begged humbly for peace; but, in spite of the offer of a large indemnity and of the surrender of some provinces, they obtained no hearing. Not till they had given up Gelderland with Nymeguen, and had secured to the Catholics free exercise of their religion and access to public offices, was peace granted to them. Had the king taken Condé's advice, and marched on Amsterdam, Holland would have been lost. Louvois' counsel, to capture the fortresses first, and secure them with garrisons, weakened the French forces, and gave the Dutch time to collect their strength. Louis, who desired only fame and profit, but disliked the hardships of a campaign, soon hastened back to his court festivals; while in Holland the Orange party, after having asserted their supremacy by force of arms, took energetic measures for the protection of their country.

The adherents of the prince shifted the whole blame of their national misfortune on to the Republicans, who had left the country in an insufficient state of defence; they also blamed the Grand Pensionary De Witt for the arrangement with France, and excited such an agitation among the people, that they not only demanded and obtained the abolition of the perpetual edict and the reinstatement of the Prince of Orange in the stadtholdership of Holland and Zealand, but the noble-minded John de Witt and his brother Cornelius were murdered in a popular rising in the streets of the Hague, and

their corpses were derided and insulted by the enraged mob (August, 1672). Disgraceful as this deed was for Holland and the Prince, it gave the State unity and power. The turbulent popular spirit had with terrible instinct recognised and chosen the way to deliverance.



SHIPS AND GALLEYS, FROM AN OLD PRINT.

WILLIAM OF ORANGE.



WILLIAM III. of Orange (1672–1702), on whom had descended both the wise circumspection, the strength of character, and the talent for generalship of his predecessors, inspired the disputants with warlike temper and patriotic enthusiasm. He was resolved to maintain the Republic, the guidance of which had now fallen into his own hands, in its full integrity, and in complete religious and political independence. The Dutch now pierced through the dams, and made their inundated country inaccessible to the French; the walls of Gröningen long kept the enemy at bay; storms destroyed the English-French fleet which had cast anchor in the Texel, and the bold march of the Marshal of Luxemburg to Amsterdam on the frozen waters was suddenly frustrated by the setting in of a thaw. Thus the elements and the nature of the country united in supporting the patriotic efforts of the Dutch. At the same time the great Elector of Brandenburg, who with

patriotic feeling had resisted all the allurements of France, induced the Emperor Leopold to take part in the war. The appearance of their united troops on the Lower and Middle Rhine compelled Marshal Turenne to change the seat of hostilities. It is true that Frederick William found himself compelled in the following year to conclude a neutral treaty with the French (June,

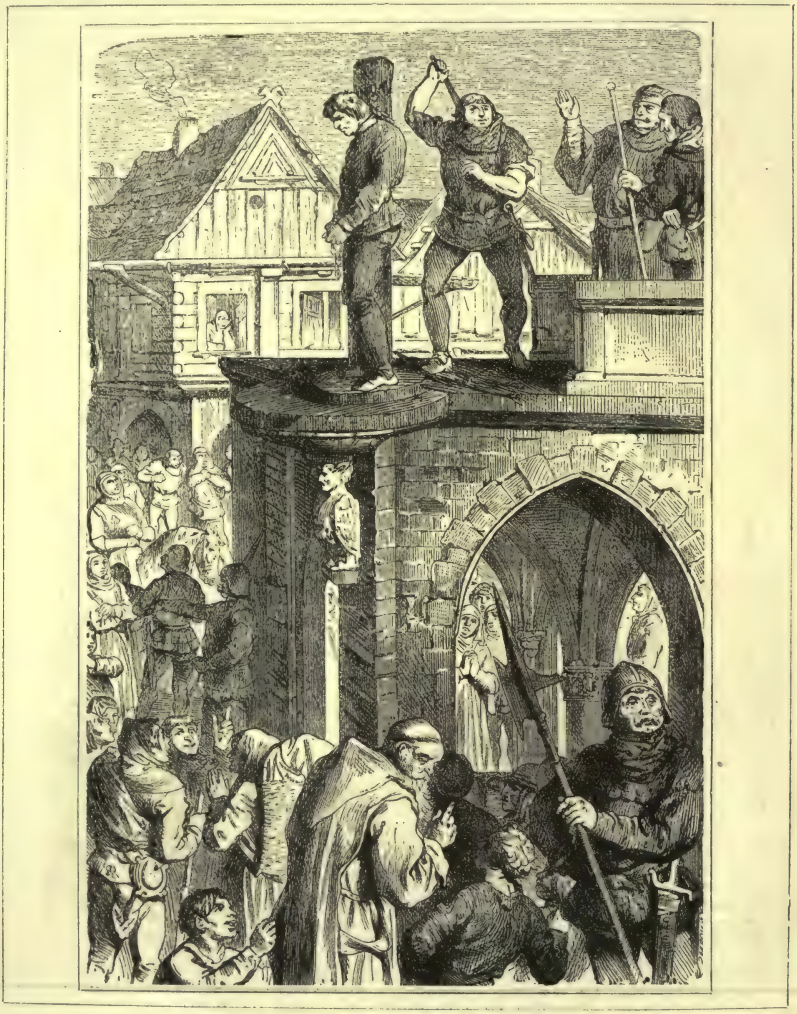


PAYING HOMAGE TO THE GREAT ELECTOR AT KONIGSBERG.

1673), because the Imperial general Montecuculli had received instructions from his court not to engage in any battle, and thus was obliged to adopt such a doubtful attitude that the Brandenburg and Austrian troops were not a match for the French. When, however, the French sovereign seized Trier, Cleves, and other places, gained possession of several Imperial towns in Alsace, and made known his arrogance by an inconsiderate violation of the German territory and the old guaranteed rights, Leopold at last declared open war, in which Spain also joined.

Sassbach and Fehrbellin.

BUT as the number of her enemies increased, so also did France's military resources. Turenne crossed the Rhine and carried his devastations into Franconia; while Condé and Luxemburg subjugated Franche-Comté, and did battle with the Spanish-Dutch forces in the Netherlands. With the incapacity and the equivocal attitude of the Imperial generals and the dissen-



A MEDIÆVAL CUSTOM. THE PILLORY.

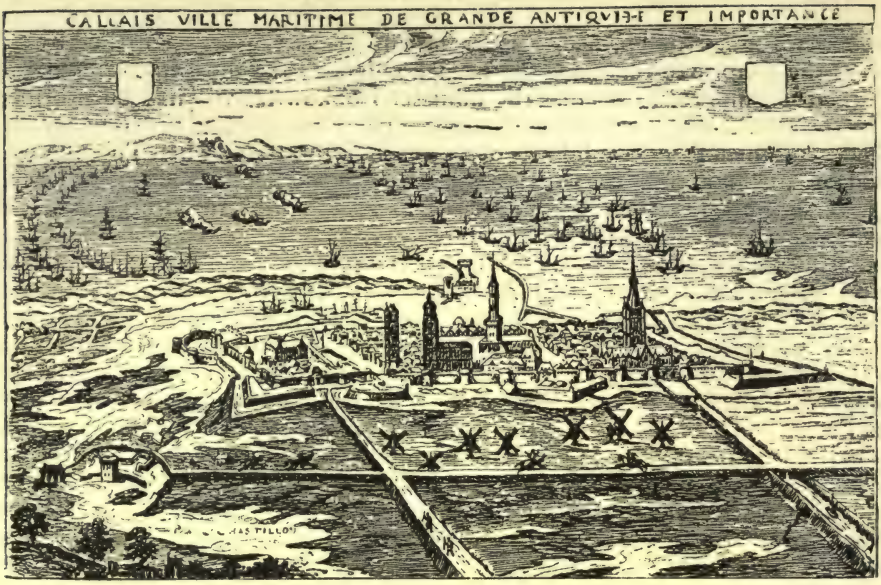
sions of the German princes, the conquests of France would have been even more brilliant, had not the great Elector and the talented and brave William of Orange, who maintained his position in the bloody battle of Senef (August, 1674) against the impetuous Condé, saved the honour of warfare until matters took another turn.

About this time, when the English Parliament had compelled the king and his ministry to relinquish the naval war, and to conclude peace for a sum of

indemnity, the spiritual princes of Cologne and Munster were compelled by the Diet of the Empire to renounce the French alliance; and the Imperial generals induced the Emperor to dismiss the minister Lobkowitz, who had been bribed by France. The result was soon apparent. The French found themselves compelled, after the unsuccessful battle of Sassbach (July, 1675), when Turenne was killed by a cannon-ball, to quit the right bank of the Rhine, and retreat across the river. Shortly before the battle, Louis XIV. had induced his allies, the Swedes, to invade the Brandenburg territory, in order to compel the great Elector and his brave general, Derflinger, to withdraw from the army on the Rhine. Before the enemy had the slightest suspicion, the energetic prince appeared in the Palatinate, which had been cruelly devastated by Sweden defeated the surprised Swedish army in the glorious battle of Fehrbellin (June, 1675), and conquered Stettin and the greater part of Pomerania, while the Dutch and Danish fleets took possession of Rügen, Gothland, and other places. This battle laid the foundation of Prussia's greatness. Henceforth the war was carried on principally in the Netherlands, where William III., on whom the stadtholdership had been conferred as the hereditary dignity of his family, held the field with honour, in spite of the superior power of the French. The barbarous system of land devastation, practised by the French, was now continued on the Moselle and the Saar; but when England seemed about to conclude an alliance with Holland, and thus increase the number of France's enemies, Louis decided to put an end to the strife. The Peace of Nymeguen was then arranged (February, 1679), which was as advantageous for France and Holland as it was disgraceful for the Emperor, the Empire, and the other participators in the war. France gave back to Holland all her conquests, but obtained from Spain the often won and often forfeited Burgundian free dukedom, and all the strong places in a line from Valenciennes, Condé, and Maubeuge (so that the Spanish Netherlands stood open to the French without any protection), and received from Germany, instead of the surrendered right of garrisoning Philipsburg, the more important town of Freiburg in Breisgau.



MARSHAL TURENNE.



FRANCE IN THE PERIOD OF LOUIS XIV. AND ABSOLUTE RULE.

POWER AND PROSPERITY OF THE "GRAND MONARQUE."—GREAT AND COSTLY ENTERPRISES AND SCHEMES.—COLONIAL POSSESSIONS.—JANSENISM.—BLAISE PASCAL.—PERSECUTION OF THE HUGUENOTS.—REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES.—DRAGONNADES.—ARROGANCE OF LOUIS XIV.—DIFFICULTIES OF AUSTRIA.—AGGRESSIVE AMBITION OF THE FRENCH KING.—THE "IRON MASK."—AFFAIRS OF AUSTRIA.—THE TURKS BEFORE VIENNA.—HEROISM OF JOHN SOBIESKI.

PROSPERITY OF LOUIS XIV.



FROM the Peace of Nymeguen till the end of the century, France was at the summit of her power abroad, and of her prosperity at home, so that the century of Louis XIV. is glorified in the annals of history as the golden age of France. In the universal prosperity of the kingdom men saw the splendid fruits of Colbert's labours. Manufactures and industries of all kinds had increased, and there existed a large foreign trade which, on account of the extraordinary power possessed by the king in Europe, was carried on on the most advantageous terms. France had also become a naval power; she possessed a hundred ships of the line, while England had only

sixty. Marseilles and Toulon were the principal depôts of Levantine trade; at Pondicherry there arose the first French colony in the East Indies; in Cayenne, St. Domingo, Madagascar, and other places settlements were made; Canada raised itself by royal support from the state of weakness and danger in which it had existed, and the Antilles were again brought into close alliance with the mother country. Splendid buildings, such as the Hôtel des Invalides, noble libraries, institutions for natural science, astronomy, etc., and academies for art and science increased the splendour and renown of the great monarch.

Jansenism.

SINCE religious matters had given place to the policy of States, temporal interests had gained the ascendant among the order of Jesuits, and the power and wealth of the Society was made the paramount object. The consequence was, that the Jesuits in their teaching adapted themselves more to the tendencies of the age. The doctrines of mental reservation and of the sanctification of means to the end were still further extended by the theory of Probability, according to which, a man in a doubtful or equivocal case is equally justified in taking the probably true or the probably false view of the matter. These teachings were opposed by the pious Jansen, bishop of Ypres, who, in his book on "Augustine," re-asserted the old severe doctrine of that father of the Church. His theories, which aimed at the awakening of religious feeling and of inward Christian sentiments, won in particular many adherents among the nuns of the cloister of Port Royal, which became the head-quarters of the movement; and some of the first thinkers in France, such as Arnauld, Pascal, Nicole, etc., also endorsed the Jansenist teaching. A long feud was carried on between the contending sects, in which members of the most distinguished noble families took part, until the "Peace of the Church" was brought about through the mediation of Louis XIV.

Among the most eminent Jansenists was Pascal, who was equally distinguished as an intellectual writer and as a philosopher and mathematician. His chief works are his "Provincial Letters," an attack upon the casuistry of the Jesuits, and his "Pensées," published by his friends after his death.

Persecution of the Huguenots.

LOUIS' conviction that the unity of the Church was necessary for the true maintenance of the monarchy had caused him to become the oppressor of the Jansenists and the persecutor of the Calvinists and Huguenots. For a long time Colbert, who prized the Huguenots as honest and industrious citizens, had succeeded in averting any arbitrary measures; but his judicious counsel was at length over-ruled by the personal friends and advisers of the king. To bring down the resolute demeanour of the Huguenot citizens, Louis at last caused the oppressive Dragonnades to be organized. At the command of Louvois, regiments of cavalry were quartered in the dwellings of Huguenots in the southern districts of the Pyrenees, the Garonne, and the Rhone. Soon all the prosperity of the industrious citizens had vanished; their property was squandered by the rude dragoons, who subjected them to every kind of brutality and ill-treatment. Thousands escaped from the country, to preserve their faith on foreign soil; but in the prisons of Toulouse there languished at this time no less than sixty reforming preachers.



ROME AND THE LANZKNECHTE.

The distress increased, however, when the king decided on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (Oct., 1685), which inaugurated a new period of oppression and persecution. The Huguenots were now plunged in despair; their religious worship was entirely prohibited, their churches were destroyed, their schools closed, and their preachers banished from the country. In spite of every attempt to stop emigration, 500,000 French Calvinists left their homes and carried their industry, faith, and devotion into foreign lands; but in France the great and envied prosperity of the southern provinces was a thing of the past.

Arrogance of Louis XIV., and Austria's Dilemma.

THE articles of the Peace of Nymeguen had been accepted by the European powers exactly as they had been drawn up by the king of France, who exercised a close personal influence over the negotiations. Encouraged by this timidity of demeanour, Louis now proceeded to the unprecedented "Reunions." While during the war he had already subjugated the ten Alsacian district towns, and caused them to be fortified, he now laid claim to a number of places and possessions, on the plea that they had formerly belonged to the districts ceded to France in the treaties of Westphalia and Nymeguen, and that consequently he had a right to them.

In order to give the measure an appearance of legality, Louis established at Metz, Besançon, Doornik, and Breisach the so-called Cameralia, or chamber tribunals, and thus became, in his own single person, accuser, judge, and executive. During the peace Louis also obtained possession, with the assistance of the treacherous bishop of Fürstenberg and a few corrupt councillors, of the free town of Strasbourg. The once free citizens were compelled on their knees to take the oath of subjection to the foreign despot; the cathedral was once more given up to Catholic worship; the arsenal was emptied.

Instead of punishing the presumption of the French king, and giving heed to the admonitions of William of Orange, the Emperor, Spain, and the divided German Empire concluded with the despotic monarch a twenty years' truce at Regensburg (Aug., 1684), in which all the districts and territories taken by Louis, including Strasbourg, were formally surrendered. But the patient endurance of his neighbours only increased Louis' avarice and ambition. Not only were religious perscutions, in spite of the express stipulation of the treaty, commenced against the Protestants in Alsace; but the limitations of the frontier were violated; the Chamber of Metz took possession, in the name of France, of the most important towns and districts in Lorraine as fiefs of the three bishoprics, and Louvois and his despotic sovereign even extended their violent measures to Italy. Casale, the key to Milan, was invested at the same time as Strasbourg, and the treacherous, equivocal diplomatist Matthioli was imprisoned for life (under the disguise of the "iron mask"?); proud Genoa also did penance for its devotion to its ancient liberties, by a terrible bombardment, and was compelled to offer a humble apology at Versailles for having shown more partisanship for Spain than for France (1684). The world was enslaved with terror.



SIEGE OF VIENNA BY THE TURKS.

The Turks before Vienna.

DURING the whole of this period the Emperor Leopold was engaged in the east of his empire. In Hungary the persecutions of the Protestants by the Austrian government, the violation of civil rights, and the tyrannical treatment of some magnates had excited dangerous rebellions just at the time when some enterprising grand viziers were renewing former plans of conquest and awakening the warlike spirit of their masters. The prince of Transylvania was compelled to pay the Porte a high tribute; and when the nobility of the country endeavoured, with assistance from Austria, to shake off the Turkish yoke, Transylvania was not only placed in a condition of greater subjection, but the Osmanli invested the whole of southern Hungary, and would have penetrated even further had not Montecuculi's brilliant victory near the St. Gothard stopped their course. When the armed truce concluded, the Turks afforded the Austrian government, and in particular the hostile minister Lobkowitz, an opportunity for the gradual annihilation of Hungarian rights and liberties.

But these violent measures awakened the patriotism and warlike courage of the Hungarians. Emmerich Tököli, an energetic, talented nobleman, whose property had been confiscated, raised the banner of insurrection; he received assistance from Louis XIV. and from the Porte, which recognised him as tributary king of Hungary, and once more carried war into the heart of Austria for his protection (1682). With an army of 200,000 men the grand-vizier Kara Mustapha advanced before the walls of Vienna. But for sixty days the brave citizens, under the command of Rüdiger von Staremberg, resisted every attack, until the Imperial army, led by Charles of Lorraine, and an allied Polish army, under the heroic king John Sobieski, came to the assistance of the oppressed town. A bloody battle under the walls of Vienna was decided against the Turks, and they retired precipitately, leaving immense booty in the hands of the victors. Charles of Lorraine conquered one Hungarian town after another; and when Ofen, which had belonged to the Turks for 146 years, also fell into the hands of the Austrians, Leopold believed that his long-cherished plans towards Hungary could be carried out. The tribunal of Eperies deprived the nobility of its most enterprising leaders, and so terrified the nation, that the States at the Diet of Presburg agreed to the abolition of the elective sovereignty, and surrendered the important right of opposing unconstitutional regulations.

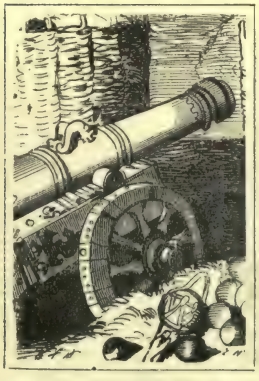
The Osmanli, who had been completely defeated in the Morea and in ancient Hellas, and had been driven by the Austrians out of Hungary and Transylvania, deposed their sultan and established another in his place; but Charles of Lorraine, Prince Eugene, and Louis of Baden maintained the victory for the banner of Austria. Belgrade, however, came again into the hands of the Turks in 1688; but Louis of Baden's brilliant victory near Salankemen in 1691, when 26,000 Turks, including the grand-vizier himself, lay slain on the battle-field, and the bloody battle of Zeutha on the Theiss (1697), at last compelled the Porte to agree to the Peace of Carlowitz (Jan. 1699). Transylvania and all the country between the Danube and the Theiss were ceded to Austria; Morea and a few islands fell to Venice; and Russia, which had also at the last taken part in the war, retained the captured town of Asow. Thus Austria came forth with honour from a conflict which had begun so ominously. Count Tököli, on whom the Sultan conferred the title of a Prince of Widdin, died (1705) an exile, on an estate near Nicomedia, far from the home whose liberation had been the object of his life.



ENGLAND UNDER CHARLES II., JAMES II., AND WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.

CHARLES II.—PLAGUE AND FIRE OF LONDON.—CONVENTICLE ACT.—EDICT OF TOLERATION.—TEST ACT.—CAREER OF SHAFTESBURY.—OATES AND BEDLOE.—RYE HOUSE PLOT.—FATE OF LORD WILLIAM RUSSELL AND ALGERNON SYDNEY.—REIGN OF JAMES II.—ILLEGAL ACTION OF THE KING.—THE REBELLION OF 1688.—WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.—CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT AND BILL OF RIGHTS.—ACCESSION OF ANNE.

CHARLES II. (1660–1685).

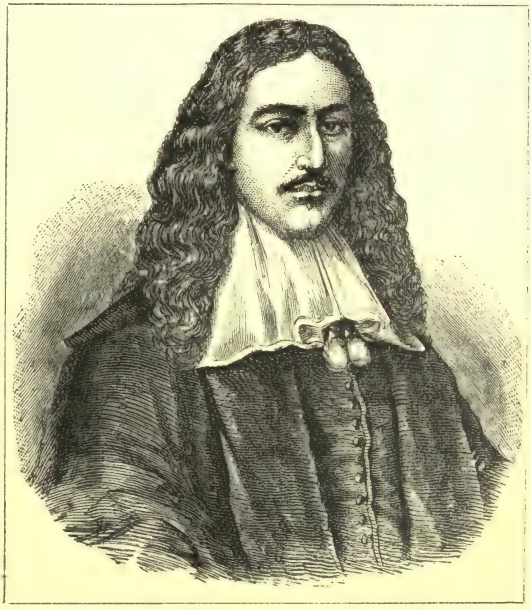


THE reign of the frivolous, weak, and voluptuous Charles II. was disastrous for England. Neither his father's fate nor his own painful experiences served him as a lesson or warning. Scarcely was the vengeance of the royalists on the Puritans and Republicans pacified, when the country was visited with heavy calamities. A contagious disease plunged into the grave in a single summer a hundred thousand inhabitants of the capital (1665); in the following year two-thirds of London was consumed by flames (13,000 houses and 89 churches); and soon afterwards the Dutch fleet navigated the Thames, burnt the ships of war, and captured several vessels. The frivolous king made but little attempt at resistance; and with shameless disregard of patriotic or honourable feeling, he sold to France the town of Dunkirk, which had been gained by Cromwell, and squandered away the purchase-money on his own pleasures; and when



LONDON DURING THE FIRE.

the extravagance of his court increased his debts and need of money, and Parliament was not so liberal in its grants as he desired, he listened to the enticing suggestions of France, and bartered the honour and well-being of his country and his own faith for money, and became a pensioner of Louis XIV. The Duke of York, the king's brother, changed his religion; he entered the Roman Church, and also induced his wife, Anne Hyde, a daughter of the minister Clarendon, the Royalist historian of the English "Rebellion," to take the same step; and Charles II. only concealed his Catholic convictions within his own breast by the advice of Louis XIV., who feared that a sudden conversion would be fraught with danger to the throne and injury to his own interests. The people, however, suspected their king's change of faith, although they only obtained proof of it when Charles, on his death-bed, took the Sacrament according to the Catholic rites.



JOHN DE WITT.

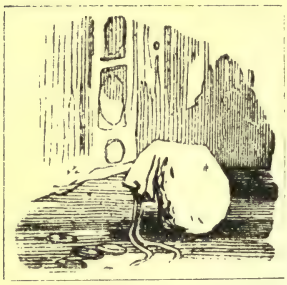
Conventicle Act.—Edict of Toleration.—Test Act.



THE promise that had been given by Charles II. at the time of the Restoration, permitting perfect freedom of conscience, remained unfulfilled as long as the majority of the English nation and the intolerant clergy were intent on venting all their anger on the Puritans for the humiliation they had suffered at their hands. In accordance with the new Act of Uniformity, now passed, the king suffered two thousand Puritan ministers to be deprived of their livings, and thus plunged, with their wives and families, into complete misery; and when the deceived and outraged preachers endeavoured to institute secret services of devotion, they were debarred from even this consolation by the passing of the Conventicle Act, which declared all religious meetings of more than five persons at which the Book of Common Prayer was not used, to be unlawful, and threatened with heavy punishment those who took part in them. This Conventicle Act was also extended to Scotland, where the Episcopal system was introduced in all its severity; only to the most moderate Presbyterians a sort of toleration was granted under the name of an indulgence. But when the Episcopalians had sated their vengeance on the Dissenters, and the severity of the Nonconformist laws began to affect the Catholics also, Charles again recollected his promise, and endeavoured to mitigate the oppression. He therefore, without reference to Parliament, issued the Edict of Toleration, in which he assumed the power of suspending all penal laws against the Nonconformists, of permitting religious services in appointed places, and of placing the dissenting clergy under the protection of the authorities. But this measure excited such indignation throughout the whole kingdom, that the king found himself obliged, not only to withdraw the measure, but also to confirm the Test Act demanded by Parliament, according to which all who refused to render the oath of fidelity, to partake of the Sacrament according to the rites of the Anglican Church, and to sign a declaration rejecting the doctrine of transubstantiation, were declared incapable of holding any office or military post, or of being elected to Parliament or the Council of State. The Duke of York would not tender the Test oath, but laid down his office of High Admiral.

After the death of his first wife, Anne Hyde, the Duke of York became still more unpopular, when he espoused as his second wife a Catholic princess, Mary of Modena, of the d'Este family. The Duke's two daughters,—Mary, who married William, the Stadtholder of Holland, and Anne, who became the wife of Prince George of Denmark,—remained Protestants.

Shaftesbury's Career.



AFTER eight years' honourable administration of his office, Charles's minister Clarendon fell into ill favour with the king and the nation. He was disgraced; and, being deprived of his office, was forced to end his days as an exile in foreign lands (1668). A ministry, called, after the initials of its members (Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale), the Cabal ministry, conducted the government according to the king's pleasure, from 1669 to 1674, without regard for the rights and honour of the nation. Once more a violent conflict arose between the sovereign, who strove for supreme power, and the Parliament, which defended the rights of the people and the religion of the country. Supported by this ministry, Charles now undertook the unpopular war with Holland, which brought to himself French gold for his partisanship, but to his country loss and dishonour. Bribery and venality were now no longer considered disgraceful in higher circles. In vain did Parliament, at the end of a few years, urge the king to put an end to the war. Charles, who was apprehensive on the score of his pecuniary interests with the French king, allowed his natural son Monmouth, with some thousands of English soldiers, to enter into the pay of the French; and when the Lower House urgently demanded the recall of these troops, the king, who was once more bought over by Louis XIV., prorogued the Parliament, and bound himself by a contract to enter into no alliance with Holland without the consent of the French king (1675). Counting on the maintenance of this agreement, Louis continued the war in the Netherlands until he felt convinced that his ally could no longer resist the vehement demands of the English people, and the prevailing feeling in Holland seemed to promise him an advantageous peace (Nymeguen).

In the meantime the members of the Cabal ministry had one by one resigned their posts; and several of them, including Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, joined the opposite party, fearing that the king's unconstitutional measures would bring disgrace and danger on themselves. In order to gain the confidence of the nation, Shaftesbury availed himself of the rumour of a Papist plot against the life of the king, founded on the statements of two men named Oates and Bedloe. These statements were manifestly and palpably an empty invention; but so great was the weakness of the king, that, though convinced of the untruthfulness of the story, he gave his consent to violent measures against the Papists, in consequence of which two thousand people were imprisoned, and several Catholic ecclesiastics were executed.

It was in vain that Charles dissolved the Parliament, with which he had governed for eighteen years, in January 1679; the new one uttered the same hostile language against the Catholic tendency of the court and the dangerous schemes of the Papists, till the king was compelled to send his brother out of the country, to dismiss his trusted minister Danby, to appoint a new ministry under the guidance of Sir William Temple and Lord Shaftesbury, and to strengthen the Council of State by the addition of popular men. This ministry gained for itself an immortal name in English history by the *Habeas Corpus* Act, the Palladium of the personal liberty of Englishmen (1679). But when the new Parliament continued the persecutions and imprisonments of the Papists in spite of the *Habeas Corpus* Act, when it caused

the aged William Howard, Lord Stafford, to be executed, and urged with renewed determination the bill excluding the Duke of York from the succession to the throne, Charles again dissolved the assembly. Relying on the pecuniary aid he received from France, the king had frequent recourse to this measure, until the nation, fearing a repetition of the civil war, showed a more moderate temper. From this time were developed the two political parties, bearing the names of Whigs and Tories, who to this day, under the more modern name of Liberals and Conservatives, divide the country into two great political camps.

Against the leaders of the Whigs, including Shaftesbury. Lord William Russell, Algernon Sidney, Grey, and others, who demanded the Duke of York's exclusion from the throne, and who partly contemplated the restoration of the Republic and partly the handing over the crown to Charles's illegitimate son Monmouth, the whole anger of the court was now directed. Shaftesbury escaped the danger by flying to Holland, where he soon afterwards died; but his friends succumbed to the violent measures of their opponents. Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney, having been found guilty of high treason by Tory judges, were condemned to death on the scaffold, for alleged participation in the Rye House plot. Monmouth escaped to Holland. Then the nation, weary of conspiracies, and unfavourable to the Republicans, became tranquil and apathetic, so that the Duke of York was again able to resume his office, and Charles, until his death, ruled as absolutely as he pleased.



SHAFTESBURY.

JAMES II. (1685–1688).



STAR CHAMBER COURT.

A FEW weeks after James's accession to the throne, the Duke of Monmouth, the natural son of the late king, a handsome, wealthy, and extremely popular nobleman, landed in England with a band of English exiles, and, in the West, raised the standard of rebellion against his uncle. The attempt was frustrated, partly by the cowardice and want of judgment of the commander, and the dissensions of his followers. Monmouth, routed at Sedgmoor and found hiding in a ditch, was captured, and died a miserable death on the scaffold in 1685 ; but James's cruelty towards all the participators in the insurrection, of whom 330 were executed, and over 800 transported to the West Indies in the terrible bloody assize held by the infamous judge Jefferies and Colonel Kirk, extinguished the last spark of devotion to the king in the hearts of the people. The name of the chief judge Jeffreys, who marched through the counties with an executioner's axe and a band of hangmen, is marked with odium in the annals of English history. And when he became Lord Chancellor, when the number of Catholic officials increased, when the evasion of the Test Act by the extension of the royal dispensing power claimed by the king, and the projected introduction of a toleration edict appeared to foreshadow the gradual re-establishment of Catholicism, and every proceeding seemed to signify that James sought to bring about a transformation in the ecclesiastical constitution of England, the nation was stirred to its depths, and the outbreak of a revolution seemed inevitable.

The dissatisfaction of the English people reached its climax when, at the same time that the Emperor, Holland, Brandenburg, several princes of the German empire, Spain, and Sweden were uniting against France in the league of Augsburg (1686), James entered into an alliance with Louis XIV., and summoned home the English troops who for years had been in the pay of Holland. Six-and-thirty officers and a few common soldiers alone responded to the command ; the others remained with the Prince of Orange who, as husband of James's eldest daughter Mary, and as the king's nephew, possessed a claim to the throne of England, and who had publicly expressed his disapproval of his father-in-law's measures by his declaration against the abolition of the Test Act. Just at this time the news that a son had been born to the king annihilated the hopes of the English for a speedy release from the yoke of Popery, and gave rise to the idea of liberation by means of assistance from William of Orange. With inconceivable blindness James beheld the preparations of the General States, who now requited their Stadt-



WILLIAM OF ORANGE MADE STADTHOLDER.

holder for their own liberation by a generous support. Even the representations of Louis XIV. were not effectual in opening the eyes of the king. Not till William landed on the coast of England, and gave the signal for a general rising, did James perceive the volcano on which his throne stood. It was in vain that he withdrew every unconstitutional measure; the confidence of the people was forfeited for ever. And when Lord Churchill, who subsequently became the famous Duke of Marlborough, passed over with his troops to William's side; when even James's favourite daughter Anne and her Danish husband George, half voluntarily and half under compulsion, espoused the nation's cause, and the temper of the army and navy warned the king of his fall, he sent off his wife, Mary of Modena, with the infant prince, to France, threw the great seal into the Thames, and then made his escape, in despair, from the land of his fathers, in December, 1688. The remainder of his life, after his attempt to regain the throne, with the help of Irish insurgents, had been frustrated, was passed at St. Germains.

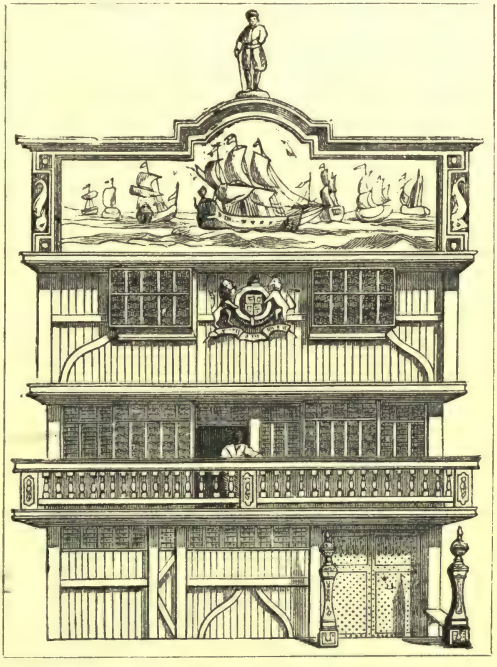


MEDAL OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

William and Mary.



AFTER James's flight, the representatives of the English people, the parliamentary convention that had been summoned to consider the state of affairs, declared the throne vacant, and after long deliberation decided that the Catholic line of the Stuarts should be excluded from the government, and that the crown should be made over to the royal pair, William and Mary. But having learnt a lesson from experience, Parliament secured the ancient rights and institutions of the nation from future arbitrary measures by passing the Bill of Rights (Feb., 1689), which defined the limits of the king's authority, without infringing on the dignity of the



THE FIRST EAST INDIA HOUSE.

crown. The alleged dispensing power claimed by the Stuart kings was declared to have no existence, and the responsibility of the ministers for all government measures was established; but the strict maintenance of the Test Act and the laws of Church uniformity proved that the virtue of toleration in religious matters had not yet reached the consciousness of the Englishman. The Scotch nation willingly recognised the new order of things, especially as William consented to the abolition of the hated Episcopacy and the restoration of the Presbyterian synod constitution; but the Irish, who received support from France, and were led in battle by James himself, were only compelled to recognition of William and Mary by the bloody battle on the Boyne (July 20, 1690). Cromwell's cruel measures were again adopted towards this unfortunate island, which, as a conquered country, was compelled to forfeit all its rights. During William's reign the last foundation was laid of England's liberty and greatness. The exchequer was separated from the civil list of the king, and the liberty of the press took firm root; the London Bank also came into existence, and the East India Company was extended.



THE PALSGRAVINE ELIZABETH.

Queen Anne.

On the death of William, in 1702, he was succeeded by James's younger daughter, Anne (born 1664), under whom was accomplished the complete union of Scotland and England (1707). She survived her husband and all her children, and the English crown then passed to the Elector George of Hanover, the grandson of the unfortunate Palsgravine Elizabeth, queen of Bohemia. Anne would willingly have appointed her half-brother, the pretender James III., as her successor; but her design was frustrated by the disfavour with which the nation regarded the Catholic line of the Stuarts.

Of the great struggle which occupied the reign of Anne, and forms its chief feature, we shall have presently to speak.



THE FRENCH IN THE PALATINATE.

THIRD (ORLEANS) WAR OF LOUIS XIV. (1689–1697).



THE League of Augsburg (1686) proved to Louis XIV. that the nations of Europe were weary of France's supremacy; and as his ally the Turkish Sultan was at the same time overpowered by the arms of Austria, he once more decided on war. The succession of the Palatinate and the election of the Archbishop of Cologne afforded a welcome opportunity for a declaration of hostilities. This third war commenced with a barbarous measure. In order to prevent the enemy from marching into France, Louvois, with the concurrence of his despotic sovereign, determined to create a wilderness between the two kingdoms by the devastation of the Rhenish territory of the Palatinate. The terrible work now commenced; Heidelberg was partly destroyed by fire; Rohrbach, Wiesbach, Kirchheim, Baden, etc., were demolished, Worms was reduced to ashes, and at Spires the people were driven from the town, which, with its venerable cathedral, was then consumed by the flames (June,

1689). In spite of the superior numbers of the enemy, the French on the whole maintained their supremacy. In the Netherlands the genius of the great Marshal de Luxemburg gained two victories, at Fleurus and Steinkirk; in Italy the brave Marshal Catinat won for Louis the battle of Staffarda (Aug. 1690), while Admiral Tourville gained a victory at Dieppe; and an unsuccessful naval battle near La Hogue was quickly followed by a brilliant victory at Neerwinden (1693). In spite of these successes, however, Louis at last agreed to the Peace of Ryswick (1697), by which he only retained a part of his Spanish conquests, with the island of St. Domingo; all the Duke of Savoy's possessions were restored to him. Holland obtained commercial advantages; but Germany had to surrender Strasburg and the Alsacian reunions to the French.

French Literature.—The Drama.—Corneille, Racine, Molière.



CORNEILLE.

WHEN Corneille ventured, without the consent of the Cardinal or the Academy, to bring out on the stage his principal drama, "The Cid," the Cardinal and his friends found much to censure in the new style, but were compelled to acknowledge that the national voice, which was so universally repressed, had at least its weight in literature. Corneille's drama met with such popular approval, that he was encouraged to produce soon afterwards two other pieces, "les Horaces," and "Cinna," the latter being deeply imbued with the prevailing ideas of the time with regard to royalty and supreme power. His other dramatic writings, thirty-three in number, include "Polyeucte," "Nicomède," the "Death of Pompey," etc. The most perfect dramatic poet of France, although inferior in vigour and delineation of character to the preceding writer, is Jean Racine (1639–1699), whose elegance of form, beauty of language, and measured flow of eloquence are unsurpassable. In his first two works he appears as an imitator of Corneille, but in his "Andromaque" and "Britannicus" he struck out a path for himself; in "Iphygenie" and "Phèdre," which were declared by French critics to be modelled on pieces of Euripides, Racine reaches the highest point of his poetic development. Two others of his works, "Esther" and "Athalie," are expositions of sacred subjects. Contemporary with Racine was the clever dramatist Poquelin de Molière (1620–1673), who brought French comedy to a high degree of perfection. His masterpieces are "The Misanthrope," "*Les Précieuses ridicules*," "*Le Médecin malgré lui*," "*Le Malade imaginaire*," and "*Le Tartuffe*." Among other dramatic writers may be mentioned Regnard (1647–1709), author of "The Gambler" and "The Universal Testator," and Beaumarchais (1732–1799), the writer of the piquant comedy, "Figaro's Wedding."

Other Branches of Poetry.



MOLIÈRE.

ONE of the most distinguished poets in the time of Louis XIV. was Boileau-Despréaux (1636–1711), the Horace of the French. His great merit consists in his perfect development of the French language and style, which caused him to be the dictator of poetic forms and taste. His most important work is his "Satires;" in his "Epistles" he appears as the base flatterer of the king, whose favour and protection he won in this manner. The most cultured poet of France is La Fontaine (died 1694), whose "Fables" and "Stories" are still universally read. In a world of constraint and artificiality, he invariably preserved his innate *naïveté*, his cheerful candour, and his childlike nature. Among writers of romance, mention must be made of Le Sage (died 1747), author of the "Spanish Romances," of which the much-read "History of Gil Blas of Santillana" and "The Lame Devil" are the best known. The epic style appears in the "Adventures of Telemachus," in poetic prose, by Fénelon, archbishop of Cambray, a work of noble feeling and liberal political principle.

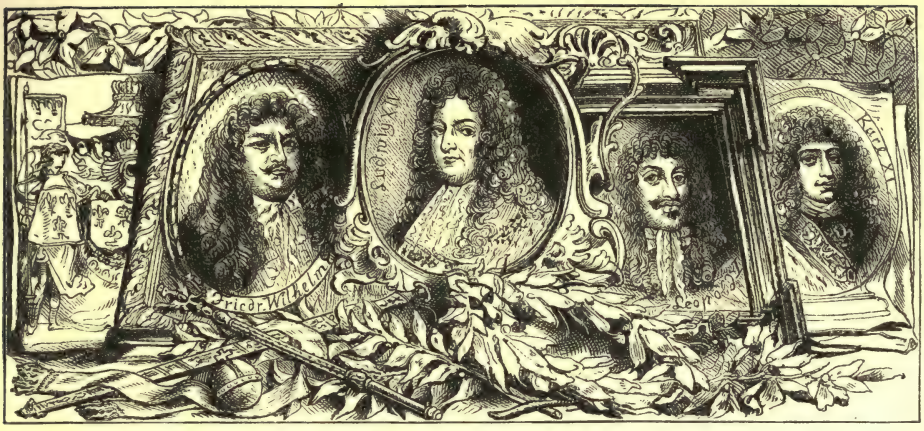
Prose Literature of the French.

ONE of the most acute critics and clearest thinkers of the time was Bayle (1647–1706), a scholar who had taken refuge in the Netherlands during the Huguenot persecutions in France. His theory, that the human reason is only capable of discovering error, but incapable of recognising truth, impresses on all his philosophical investigations a vague and indefinite character. His principal work is his "Historical and Geographical Dictionary." He also wrote, when suffering the woes of persecution, his small book on "Religious Toleration." Of a totally opposite character were the writings of the famous pulpit orator and Catholic zealot, Bossuet, bishop of Meaux (1627–1704). Besides his intellectual discourses and polemic writings against the Protestants, his best-known work is the "Discourse on Universal History," of which he treated from a Christian, theological point of view. His "Policy," in which he sought to prove the agreement between the form of French monarchy and the teachings of Holy Writ, permitted the ruler unlimited power and authority, and the subjects, as the sole remedy against oppression and tyranny

humble remonstrances and prayers. Bossuet, as well as his famous rivals for the palm of pulpit eloquence, Fléchier, Bourdaloue, etc., did not hesitate to glorify the extermination of Calvinist heresy as the most praiseworthy action of the *Grand Monarque.* Among historical writers may be mentioned Mezerai (died 1683), author of the "History of France," and d'Aubigné, the historian of the wars of the Huguenots. More celebrated than either, however, was Madame de Sevigné (1626–1696), who in her famous "Letters," describes with incomparable gracefulness of style the events and affairs of the day, and well represents the social culture of the time. La Rochefoucauld (1613–1680), whose axiom was, that "self-love is the spring of every action," must also be mentioned, as the author of "Maxims and Reflections"; his house was the resort of all the greatest thinkers of the time.



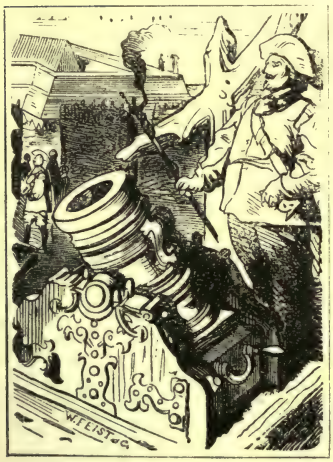
LA FONTAINE.



FIRST HALF OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY. SOUTHERN AND WESTERN EUROPE.

AFFAIRS OF SPAIN.—CHARLES II. AND THE PARTITION TREATY.—SPAIN BEQUEATHED TO PHILIP OF ANJOU.—WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.—BLENHEIM.—MARLBOROUGH AND PRINCE EUGENE OF SAVOY.—KING PHILIP V. OF SPAIN.—RAMILLIES.—TURIN.—MALPLAQUET.—HUMILIATION OF FRANCE.—TREATY OF UTRECHT, 1713.—FRANCE.—INTERNAL CONDITIONS UNDER THE REGENCY OF THE DUKE OF ORLEANS.—LAW AND HIS FINANCIAL SCHEMES.—SPAIN AND HER ASPIRATIONS.—THE QUADRUPLE ALLIANCE.—SUCCESSORS OF PHILIP V.—NORTHERN ITALY.—CHARLES EMMANUEL THE GREAT AND HIS SUCCESSORS.—CENTRAL ITALY.—FLORENCE A DUKEDOM.—THE FAMILY OF THE MEDICI.—PARMA AND MODENA.—STATES OF THE CHURCH.—SOUTHERN ITALY.—ENGLAND UNDER THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

THE SPANISH WAR OF SUCCESSION (1701–1714).



THE Peace of Ryswick (1697) had been hastily concluded by France, because Louis wished to have his hands free on account of the impending vacancy on the Spanish throne. Even during the lifetime of the last Spanish Hapsburg, the childless Charles II. of Spain, the naval powers and France had concluded at the Hague a partition treaty, dividing his dominions among them. This proceeding so much exasperated the king of Spain, that he appointed the Bavarian prince Joseph Ferdinand, whose mother was a Hapsburg, to be his successor. But the youthful prince died before the royal testator, which afforded the French ambassador at Madrid an opportunity of persuading the weak-minded king to appoint secretly, as the successor to the whole Spanish monarchy, Duke Philip of Anjou, the second grandson of Louis XIV., with the stipulation that the two crowns

should never be united. At the beginning of the new century (1700) Charles II. died; and Louis XIV., after some consideration, decided, for the sake of the aggrandizement of France, to withdraw from his agreement with the other powers, and to accept the splendid legacy; and at a solemn assembly, Philip was declared king of Spain by the court of Versailles. This led to a war far more violent than all the preceding contests. The Emperor Leopold took up arms to gain the inheritance of the Hapsburgs for his second son Charles. France, which had now exhausted her energies, which was being mismanaged by incapable ministers and deserted by her former allies, Savoy and Portugal, took part in the struggle on this occasion with less prospect of success; while on the side of Austria were not only most of the princes of Germany, but the naval powers, England and Holland.



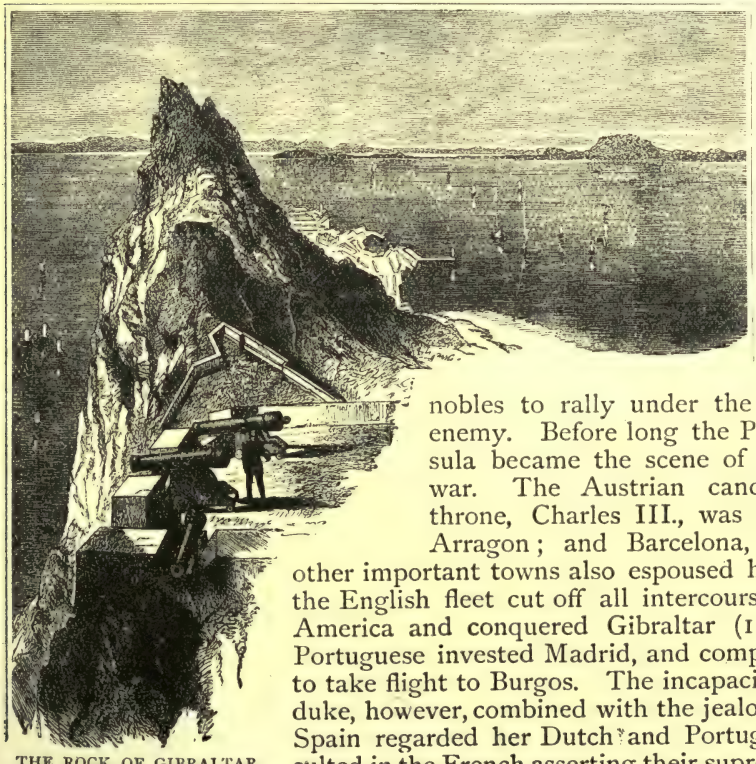
CAPTURE OF TALLARD AT BLENHEIM.

HOCHSTADT, OR BLENHEIM.

THE point most favourable, on this occasion, to the success of the arms of Austria and England, was the commanding genius of the two greatest generals of the time, Prince Eugene of Savoy and the Duke of Marlborough. The great chief, belonging to a princely house of Savoy, quitted the land of his birth and, following the dictates of his warlike nature, entered the service of the Austrian State. The French were quickly driven from their position in the Alpine passes; and, without engaging in a battle, Eugene forced the brave general Catinat to withdraw to Milan, invested Mirandola and Modena, and took Catinat's successor, Villeroi, prisoner at Cremona. By these suc-

cesses Austria won the confidence of the other powers; and when Marlborough, the leader of the Whigs after the accession of Queen Anne, appeared in the Netherlands with a large army, and repulsed the French, who were allied with the ruler of Bavaria, the allies soon asserted their supremacy over the enemy in a decisive manner. The capture of Augsburg and Passau, by which Max Emanuel, a brave, enterprising prince, hoped to gain compensation, was the last successful feat of arms of the French and Bavarians. When neither the admonitions of the Emperor nor the devastation of the prince's kingdom of Bavaria availed to induce him to relinquish his alliance with France, Eugene combined his forces with those of Louis of Baden, the Imperial commander, and entered Suabia, to do battle with the enemy. Soon also Marlborough, after a masterly campaign on the Rhine and the Moselle, added his forces to the allied army, and there quickly followed on this coalition the brilliant victory of Blenheim (Aug. 13th, 1704), when the French and Bavarian army was completely defeated, and twenty thousand men were left slain upon the battle-field. In order to chastise the Bavarian princely house for its unpatriotic partisanship, the new Emperor, Joseph I. (1705–1711), pronounced the ban of the Empire upon Max Emanuel and his brother Maximilian, the Elector of Cologne, and gave back the Upper Palatinate to the Palsgrave of the Rhine. The Duke of Marlborough, on the other hand, he raised to the rank of a prince of the Empire.

SPAIN.



THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR.

THE feeble government of Philip V., over which the Countess Orsini, chief lady-in-waiting to the young queen, exercised the most powerful influence, caused many discontented nobles to rally under the banner of the enemy. Before long the Pyrenean peninsula became the scene of a violent civil war. The Austrian candidate for the throne, Charles III., was recognised by Arragon; and Barcelona, Valencia, and other important towns also espoused his cause, while the English fleet cut off all intercourse with Spanish America and conquered Gibraltar (1704); and the Portuguese invested Madrid, and compelled the court to take flight to Burgos. The incapacity of the archduke, however, combined with the jealousy with which Spain regarded her Dutch and Portuguese allies, resulted in the French asserting their supremacy; and the victory of Philip V. near Almanza (April, 1707) secured him the throne of Spain.



MARLBOROUGH AT MALPLAQUET.

RAMILLIES.—TURIN.



THE year 1706 was distinguished by memorable deeds of warfare. In the Netherlands Marlborough gained a victory near Ramillies (May, 1706) over the incapable Marshal Villeroi, when the Spanish Netherlands were compelled to submit to the allies, and recognise the Austrian candidate to the throne as their ruler, and the states of Brabant and Flanders swore fidelity to Charles III.. This was quickly followed by the victory of Prince Eugene over the French forces in the battle of Turin (Sept. 1706), which brought the whole of northern Italy into the hands of the victors. In the following year the kingdom of Naples was also won in a single easy campaign for Charles of Austria.

Despairing of a successful issue of the war, Louis XIV. now wished for peace; but the proposal was rejected, at the instigation of Eugene and Marlborough, by England, Holland, and Austria. The brilliant victory gained at Oudenarde (July, 1708) over the quarrelsome French commanders, Vendôme and the Duke of Burgundy, completely destroyed Louis' last hopes; and he was now in a condition in which he was willing to listen to the most humiliating suggestions with regard to a proposed treaty. He consented to the

unconditional surrender of Spain, Milan, and the Netherlands, and would even have agreed to the cession of Alsace and Strasbourg, had not the further demand that Louis should himself assist in driving his own grandson out of Spain, excited such indignation at the French court that the war was allowed to continue. But in the exceptionally bloody and terrible battle of Malplaquet, in September, 1709, another hard-fought victory for Marlborough, when 33,000 men were left slain upon the battle-field, the losses of France were greater than in any previous defeat; and it would now have been necessary to accept every condition of the peace, had not Divine justice interposed to chastise the arrogance of the enemy, that mankind might learn the virtue of moderation.

The Terms of Peace.

A DISPUTE between the proud wife of Marlborough and Queen Anne had resulted in the exclusion of the former from the court; and the Whig ministry, which was devoted to the duke, was replaced by the Tories, headed by the famous Bolingbroke (St. John) and the Earl of Oxford. The queen and the Parliament now insisted on peace. The arrangement of an armed truce afforded the enemies of Marlborough an opportunity for revenge. The victorious hero lost all his offices, and was accused by Parliament of fraud. England and France now entered into the Peace of Utrecht (April, 1713), in which Holland, Prussia, Savoy, and Portugal soon also joined. By the terms of this treaty Spain and the Indies remained to the Bourbon King Philip V., on the condition that the Spanish and French crowns should never be united; Holland, besides some trading advantages, obtained the right of garrisoning several fortresses on the Spanish-Dutch frontier; Prussia gained part of Guelderland; to Savoy was awarded the island of Sicily, which it was compelled seven years later to exchange for Sardinia; England received from France, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's Bay, and from Spain Gibraltar and Minorca. The Emperor, Charles VI., was not a party to the Peace of Utrecht, and continued the war for a short time; but the victory of the French at Denain and other subsequent successes at last induced him to give his consent to the peace of Radstadt in March, 1714. In this treaty Austria obtained the Spanish Netherlands, Naples, Milan, and Sardinia, and the Electors of Bavaria and Cologne got back their lands and titles. In the following year Louis XIV. died (Sept., 1715), weary of life, and bowed down with heavy afflictions. Within two years he had lost his son and his two grandsons; and his youngest great-grandson, a child five years old, now inherited the throne as Louis XV.

Internal Affairs of France.



DURING the minority of Louis XV. the Duke of Orleans, nephew of Louis XIV., acted as regent (1715–23). The duke and his former tutor, Cardinal Dubois, were talented and intellectual, but extremely profligate men, who despised religion and morality, and regarded selfishness and ambition as the only motives for action, and sensual enjoyment as the only aim of existence. The extravagance and love of pleasure of these spendthrifts so drained the revenues of the State that in order to raise money to meet the increasing burden of debt, they entered into negotiations with a Scotchman named John Law, who proposed to establish a Paper Bank,

which not only promised large profits, but held out prospects of considerable gains in Louisiana in America. Soon all the coined money flowed into the bank and was exchanged for paper money; the value of the shares increased, and fortunes were rapidly made. Law was the most popular man of the day; he changed his religion and obtained the post of Controller-General of Finance. This apparent prosperity was, however, of only temporary duration; a panic followed, the paper notes could not be realized, and complete bankruptcy ensued. The author of this misfortune was compelled to fly from the fury of the people, and took refuge in Venice, where he soon afterwards died.

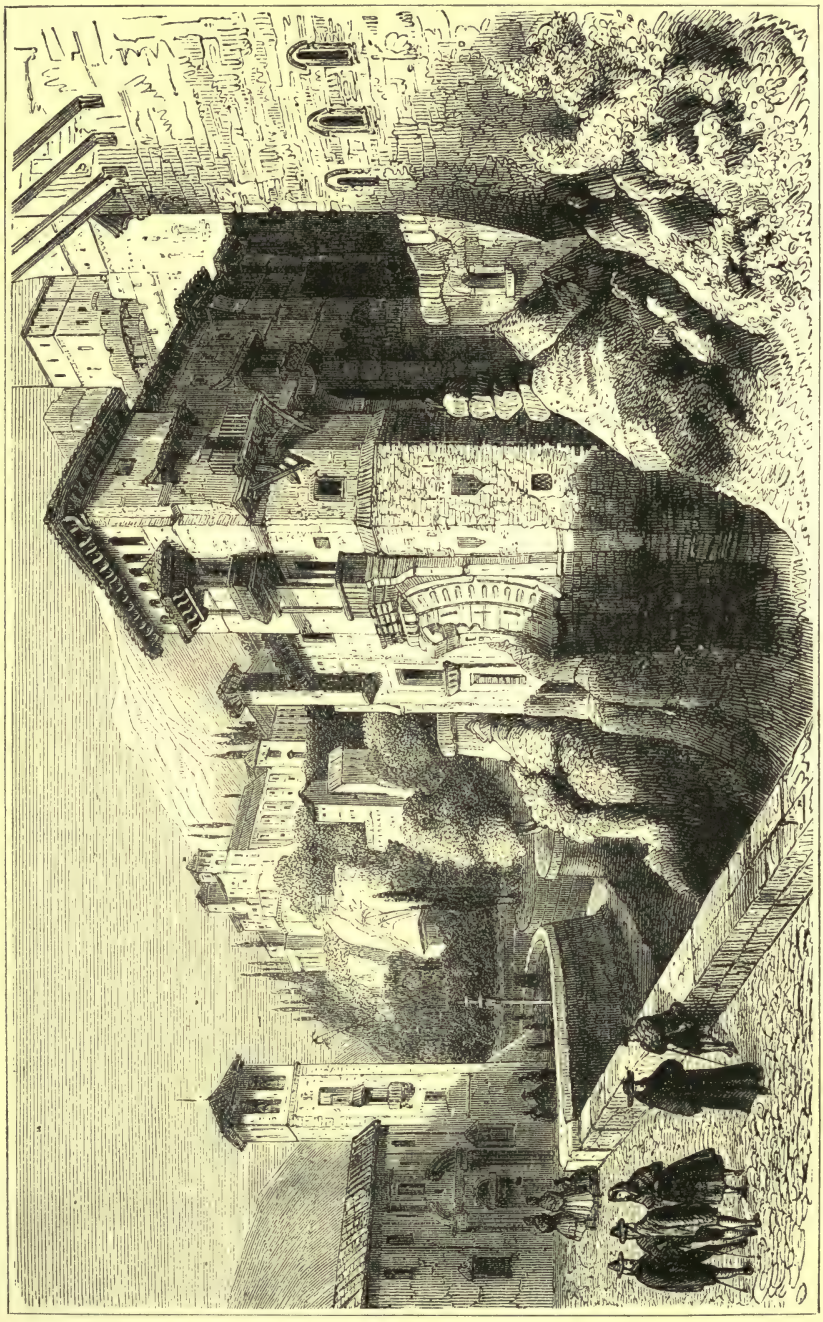
Spain.

PHILIP V. was a weak ruler, and entirely under the sway of women. His second wife, Elizabeth of Parma, and her confidential minister, the intriguing Italian Alberoni, gradually assumed the chief power in the government; and their efforts were directed towards regaining the Italian States that had been taken from the king in the Peace of Utrecht. Sardinia and Sicily were already in the hands of the Spaniards, when the threatening attitude of the Quadruple Alliance (France, England, Austria, and Holland) so terrified the timid Philip that he was compelled to dismiss Alberoni and surrender the conquests (1719). But the intriguing queen succeeded after a time in obtaining the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, and the dukedoms of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla for her sons Charles and Philip; thus these States were placed under Bourbon rulers. When Philip V., who was afflicted with a tendency to melancholy, at last sank into the grave, he was succeeded by his second son of the first marriage, Ferdinand VI. (1746–59); the new king, however, inherited his father's mental infirmity, proving but an incapable ruler, and great influence was exercised at court by the opera singer Farinelli. Ferdinand was succeeded by his half-brother Charles (1759–1788), hitherto king of Naples and Sicily, which kingdom he now made over to his third son, Ferdinand.

Northern Italy.



THE dukes of Savoy and Piedmont knew how to make a wise use of the political conditions of the time, and by successful alliances with powerful princes, to extend their territory in times of war. Charles Emanuel the Great (1580–1630) gained many advantages from the French religious wars and the Church schism in Switzerland. Victor Emanuel I. (1630–1637) obtained, on the occasion of the dispute for the succession at Mantua, a handsome portion of the dukedom of Montferrat; and again later, under Victor Amadeus II. (1675–1730) the dukedom was so much enlarged that its rulers henceforth bore the title of kings of Sardinia. Charles Emanuel III. (1730–1773) gained, during the Austrian wars of succession, some considerable tracts of territory from the dukedom of Milan, and endeavoured by a well-regulated State expenditure, and by compelling the clergy to contribute to the taxes of the country,



SPAIN.—VIEW OF GRANADA.

to cover the heavy expenses which were incurred by the maintenance of a costly militia commanded by aristocratic officers; many of his good but faulty reforms were further developed by his son, Victor Amadeus III. (1773–1796); but the feeble and untutored nation did not possess the innate strength to resist any shock from without, and when the French Revolution struck a blow at the gates of Savoy and Piedmont, the country soon fell a prey to its violent neighbours.

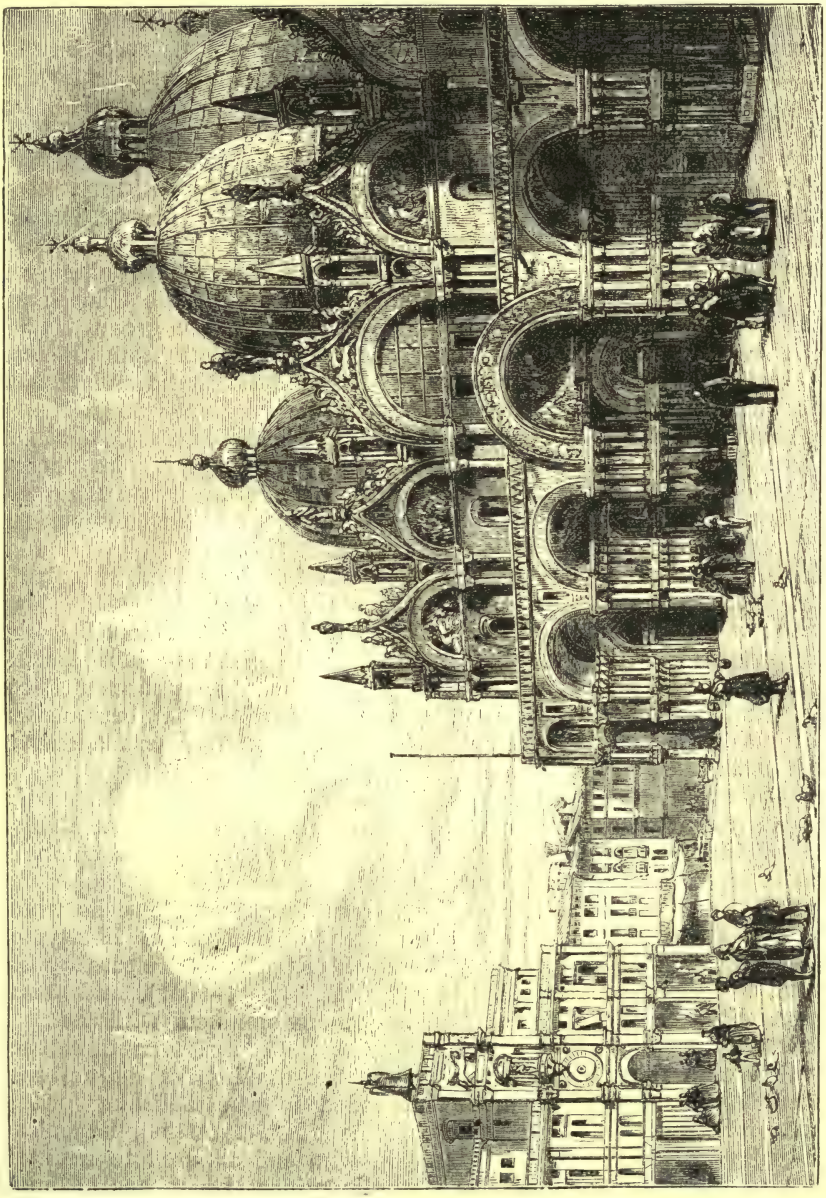
The republics of Venice and Genoa sought to maintain their aristocratic constitutions in the old form. The Turkish wars did not fail to bring renown to the former; but they nevertheless ended with the loss of its possessions in the east of the Mediterranean. Cyprus was taken by the Osmanli in 1571, who also gained possession of Candia about a century later; and the Morea was again ceded to the Turks in the peace of Passarowitz, in 1718. Genoa, on account of its situation, was not able to maintain such an isolated position as Venice. Its conflicts with powerful neighbours, who strove for the possession of the beautiful free State, form the tenour of the history of Genoa during the two last centuries. The island of Corsica, after an effort to free itself from the tyrannical supremacy of Genoa, was at last subdued with the assistance of the French, to whom it was formally ceded in 1768, shortly before the birth of Napoleon. In the peace of Aix la Chapelle (1748) the republic got back again all its former territory. Milan, with Mantua, remained after the Peace of Utrecht (1713) in the possession of Austria.



VENICE.—INNER COURT OF THE DOGE'S PALACE.

The ancient republic of Florence was first transformed into a dukedom (1530), and about 1569 into a grand dukedom of Tuscany, and for two centuries was governed, not without renown, by the family of Medicis. Cosmo (1537–74), a wise, enterprising, but faithless prince, extended his territory by the acquisition of Sienna and other territories; he vanquished the Florentine

emigrants, who had made hostile invasions into Tuscany (1554), and then directed his whole energy to the destruction of the republican forms, and the establishment of a single absolute power. While he thus sought to strengthen his own supremacy, he also directed his efforts to the promotion of trade



CATHEDRAL CHURCH OF ST. MARK, VENICE.

and manufactures; and the fine arts, too, found in him a liberal patron. Like the emperor Augustus, to whom he has been compared, the grand duke Cosmo suffered from severe domestic misfortunes; and terrible crimes also

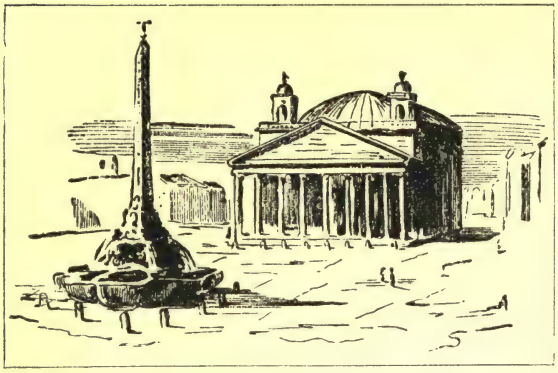
have been imputed both to himself and to members of his family. Bowed down by many sorrows, Cosmo, even before his death, placed the government in the hands of his son Francesco (1575–1587), who, like his father, was a promoter of trade and manufactures, but whose intrigue with the beautiful Venetian Bianca Capello caused him much domestic unhappiness. His death was ascribed to poison, which had been prepared by Bianca for his brother Ferdinand, who now ascended the throne as Ferdinand I. (1587–1609). The reign of this king proved a prosperous one for the State, and under his successor, Cosmo II. (1609–1621), Tuscany continued to maintain its wealth and splendour. In art and science Florence took even a higher rank; but the succeeding regency and afterwards the long reign of Ferdinand II. (1628–70) was a turning-point for the worse in Florentine history. Groaning under the evils of bad government and a visitation of the plague, the country from this time forth commenced its downward course to the depths of degeneration into which most of the other States of Italy had already fallen. Cosmo III. (1670–1723) regarded the glorification of the Church and the conversion of heretics as his supreme duty. The State groaned under an oppressive burden of debt, and all prosperity vanished from the country. With Cosmo's second son, John Gasto (1723–1737), the Medicean house became extinct; and shortly before the death of this ruler the European powers agreed that Francis Stephen, husband of the empress Maria Theresa, should inherit the grand dukedom. Francis Stephen was succeeded by his second son Leopold (1765), under whom the country once more enjoyed a period of prosperity. On his accession to the throne of Austria, he made over Tuscany to his second son, Ferdinand Joseph (1790).

Parma, which had been created a dukedom by Pope Paul III., had been governed since the middle of the seventeenth century by the house of Farnese; when this family became extinct, the dukedom of Parma, with Piacenza and Guastalla, was conferred on a Spanish Bourbon prince, Don Carlos, who, on his accession to the throne of Naples, was succeeded by Don Philip. Philip's son and successor, Ferdinand (1765–1804), became involved in a dispute with the Pope; after his death the country was added to the French possessions in northern Italy.

The dukedom of Modena, with Reggio, Mirandola, and Massa-Carrara, was governed in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries by members of the house of Este; the last duke was Hercules III., who was compelled to surrender his country to the French (1796).

The States of the Church suffered from the incurable evils which the ecclesiastical government inflicted on the prosperity and liberty of the people. Innocent X. (1644–1655) destroyed Roman agriculture by his corn monopoly. His successor, Alexander VII. (1655–1667), and his third successor, Innocent XI. (1676–1689), had many conflicts with Louis XIV., who not only encroached on the rights of the Pope, but even threatened the Holy Father in the Eternal City through the medium of his ambassadors. Innocent XII. (1691–1700) alone succeeded in re-establishing peace with France. The succeeding Popes were Clement XI. (1700–21), Benedict XIII. (1724–30), and Benedict XIV. (1740–58), who endeavoured to maintain the dignity of the Curia against the Catholic princes by means of important grants. Clement XIII. (1758–69) was succeeded by Clement XIV., Ganganelli (1769–74), a liberal-minded man, who made his reign memorable by the abolition of the order of Jesuits. His successor, Pius VI. (1774–99), in vain sought to defend the dignity and power of the Church during an irreligious period.

Southern Italy.



FOR two centuries the kingdom of Naples and Sicily remained under the Spanish rule, since Ferdinand the Catholic had by force and stratagem possessed himself of the beautiful country (1504). It was governed by Spanish vice-kings, under whom its liberties were gradually annihilated, and its prosperity destroyed by exorbitant taxation. The popular rising at Naples under Masaniello (1647) was rendered fruitless by the incapacity of the leaders, and the insufficient support rendered by the French. Naples and the island of Sicily subsequently fell into the hands of the Austrians; but sixteen years later the Emperor Charles VI., in order to obtain recognition of the "Pragmatic Sanction," agreed that Naples should be handed over to Don Carlos, who again, on his accession to the throne of Spain as Charles III. (1759), made over the government to his youthful son Ferdinand IV., whose eventful reign lasted through the storms of the French Revolution and the Restoration. He died as Ferdinand I., king of the two Sicilies, in the year 1825.

England.



UNDER the rulers of the House of Hanover—George I. (1714–27), George II. (1727–60), and George III. (1760–1820)—the free institutions of England obtained such durability that the personal characters of the kings exercised but little influence on the progress of events. George I., who was not highly endowed either in his mental or moral qualities, placed his confidence in the Whigs, and caused the Tory ministers (Bolingbroke, Ormond, etc.) to be accused of high treason on the score of favouring the Pretender. The impeached statesmen escaped to James, who, with the assistance of the discontented Tories or Jacobites, made an attempt to obtain the crown of England (1715). The enterprise was, however, defeated through the decision of the minister, Robert Walpole, who, under George I. and his successor, conducted the business of the State for twenty-one years. And in order that peace might be the better preserved, the law for Septennial Parliaments was introduced (1716), and the increase of the land forces was decided on. After one more fruitless attempt of the Jacobites, at the instigation of the Swedish Baron Görtz, the intriguing counsellor of Charles XII., and Alberoni, the nation was left in peace to carry on its trade and industries; and the prosperity of the country sustained but slight injury from the dangerous experiment of the South Sea Company, which, offering to buy up the national debt, inaugu-

rated a system of swindling and speculation similar to that originated by Law in France. The government, which was responsible to the representatives of the people, had only the welfare of the country in view; and the misconduct which prevailed at the English court under the first two Georges, in connection with favourites and mistresses, did not avail to materially retard this great object. In the year 1769, James Watt, of Greenock, in Scotland, improved the steam engine, which, by its application to shipping and locomotives, created a new era in the traffic of the world; and about the same time the spinning-jenny was brought out by Arkwright. At the same period also Adam Smith (1723–90), professor at Glasgow, founded a new epoch in the science of political economy by his famous work, the "Wealth of Nations." During the reign of George II., Charles Edward Stuart, son of James III., effected a landing in Scotland; but, after some temporary successes, was completely defeated in the battle of Culloden (April 27th, 1746), when the hopes of the Stuarts were destroyed for ever.



GEORGE I.



THE NORTH AND EAST OF EUROPE.

POWER OF SWEDEN IN THE TIME OF CHARLES XI.—ACCESSION OF CHARLES XII.—CONFEDERACY AGAINST HIM.—RUSSIA UNDER THE ROMANOFFS.—PETER THE GREAT (1689–1725).—REFORMS IN RUSSIA.—POLAND.—VICTORIOUS CAMPAIGNS OF CHARLES XII.—CHARLES IN SAXONY.—RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.—PULTOWA AND ITS CONSEQUENCES.—CHARLES XII. A FUGITIVE IN TURKEY.—RETURN TO SWEDEN.—WAR WITH DENMARK.—DEATH OF THE KING AT FRIEDRICHSHALL.—INTERNAL CONDITION OF THE NORTHERN POWERS.—SWEDEN.—RUSSIA UNDER THE SUCCESSORS OF PETER THE GREAT.—POLAND.



THE GREAT NORTHERN WAR (1700–1718).

CHARLES XII. AND HIS OPPONENTS.

AT the death of Charles XI. (1697), Sweden stood at the summit of its power. The diplomatic despotism of the king had invested the Crown with unlimited power; and the complete confiscation of the alienated crown property, combined with the parsimoniousness of the monarch, had filled the State exchequer. In possession of the coast countries and of the wealthy towns of Stralsund, Stettin, Riga, and Revel, Sweden dominated the trade of the Baltic, and met the deficiency of its own poverty by imposing lucrative tolls. The neighbouring princes, however, regarded the Swedish supremacy with

envious eyes, and when Charles XI. was succeeded by his son Charles XII. (1697–1718), then only seventeen years of age, who, with the help of his adviser Piper, set aside the regency appointed by his father, and took the supreme royal power into his own hands, the favourable moment seemed to have arrived for breaking the power of Sweden for ever; for it was hardly possible for a young and inexperienced prince to resist the three powerful rulers of Russia, Poland, and Denmark, who, under the auspices of the Livlander Patkul, entered into a league against Sweden (1699).



PALM SUNDAY IN RUSSIA.

Russia under the House of Romanoff.

WHEN the royal House of Rurik became extinct with Feodor, a period of violence and lawlessness commenced in Russia. Boris (1598–1605), a wise and upright prince, was dispossessed of a portion of his territory by a pretended brother of Feodor, named Demetrius. Boris put an end to his life in despair, and the pretender obtained the throne as the False Demetrius (1605–6). A period of complete anarchy now set in, during which no less than *three* false Demetriuses paraded before the nation, and the Poles and Swedes succeeded in extending their territories. Peace was only restored when Michael Romanoff (1613–45), who, on his mother's side, was a descendant of the ancient line of Czars, was elected to fill the throne with unlimited sway. With him commences the royal line of Romanoff, to which Russia

owes its greatness and its development into one of the great European powers. After a long and peaceful reign, Michael was succeeded by his son Alexis (1645–76), who gained possession of Smolensk and other towns in the great Polish war, and compelled the warlike Cossacks to recognise Russia's supremacy. Alexis also opened highways for commerce through Siberia to Persia and China. His eldest son, Feodor (1676–82), took an important step towards Imperial supreme rule by the annihilation of the family register, or Rosrad, on which rested the claims of the noble families. After the death of Feodor, the appointed succession to the throne was set aside; and the crown was offered to his brother Ivan, who, however, was ultimately dispossessed by Peter, the youngest son of Alexis.

Peter the Great (1689–1725).



THE young Czar proved an extraordinary man, possessing an energy which was never paralysed, and a sense of truth which could be confused by no religious or political advantage. Boundless as was his ambition, it never led him into vanity; and though his activity was unresting, he was steadfast in pursuing all his plans. In order to carry out his great aim of transforming the Russian empire from an Asiatic to a European State, he promoted the immigration of foreign manufacturers, sailors, and officers into Russia; and also undertook a journey to England, where he studied the shipping and visited the docks, workshops, and manufactories. So great was his admiration of the English navy that he exclaimed: "Were I not Czar of Russia, I would be an English admiral!" He was, however, summoned home from his foreign travels by an insurrection of the Strelitzers (1698), in which his ambitious sister, Sophie, was a participator; the rebellion was cruelly repressed, and his sister was condemned to close confinement for the rest of her days. Peter now directed his attention to strengthening and improving the army; foreign officers entered the Russian service and exercised the troops in the European method of warfare; and these tactics were crowned with such success, that the Czar soon obtained a firm footing in the Black Sea, having gained possession, in the peace of Carlowitz, of various conquered towns, and then founded the town of Taganrog.

Poland.

ON the death of the warlike king, John Sobieski (1696), a fresh conflict arose between the adherents of the French candidate for the throne, and the partisans of the Elector Frederick Augustus of Saxony. The latter, however, proved victorious, and was proclaimed king of Poland, after having first entered the Church of Rome (June, 1697). The Polish nobility alone possessed civil rights and filled government offices, while the peasantry languished in bondage and misery; the high clergy shared the privileges of the nobility, the lower participated in the superstitions and ignorance of the bondsmen, while the numerous population of Jews were in possession of the retail trade and the few manufactures.

Victorious Campaigns of Charles XII.

AFTER the alliance had been concluded, Frederick Augustus marched towards the frontier of Livland, while the Russians invaded Esthland and besieged Narwa, and Frederick IV. of Denmark attacked the duke of Holstein-Gottorp. To the astonishment of Europe, however, the young king of Sweden showed himself equal to the emergency; he crossed to the island of Zealand with a brave army and well-manned fleet, and in a few weeks compelled Frederick to withdraw from the alliance and promise an indemnity to the duke of Holstein in the Peace of Travendal (August, 1700). This success was followed by the defeat of the Russians before Narwa in the same year, and the invasion of Kurland, where he destroyed a Russo-Saxon army, and threatened to make war on the Poles, if they would not depose their king. When this demand was rejected, Charles marched with his Swedish troops into Poland, and in a few days stood before the gates of Warsaw. The town quickly surrendered, and shortly afterwards Cracow also fell into his hands. Frederick Augustus, who had escaped from the country, was now declared to have forfeited the throne, and Charles's candidate, Stanislaus Lesczinski, Voyvode of Posen, was proclaimed king (July, 1704).

Charles XII. in Saxony.

IN order to frustrate a projected alliance between the Russians and Saxons, with whom the appointment of the Polish king was unpopular, Charles made an expedition into Galicia and conquered Lemberg; he also forced the Saxons to retire from Warsaw, which they had attacked in his absence, and then advanced into Lithuania and Poland, where he compelled the Russians to beat a retreat, and enforced the recognition of Stanislaus as king. He then united his forces with those of his brave general Rhenskjöld, marched through Silesia into Lusatia, and in a short time stood in the heart of Saxony. The inhabitants were overwhelmed with terror, and the royal family consented to the disgraceful peace of Altranstadt (September, 1706), in which they renounced the Polish crown for themselves and their descendants, and promised to dissolve their alliance with the Czar.

Pultowa.

IN the meantime Peter had availed himself of the absence of the Swedish military forces, to subjugate Ingermanland, and a portion of Livland and Esthland. He also built the fortresses of Schlüsselburg and Cronstadt, and laid the foundation of the new capital of St. Petersburg (1703). Charles XII. now hastened from Germany, determined to measure his strength against his last and most powerful foe. He captured Grodno and Wilna, and then advanced towards Smolensk (1708). The turning-point in Charles's successful career was, however, at hand. In spite of the severity of the winter, he continued his march, and commenced the siege of the strong town of Pultowa. Peter then advanced at the head of a considerable army, and on the 8th of July, 1709, compelled the Swedish king to engage in the battle of Pultowa, in which the Swedes were completely defeated. Charles made his escape to Turkey; and the remnant of his army was scattered and destroyed.



PETER I. AT PULTOWA.

Charles XII. in Turkey.



CHARLES was respectfully received, and generously treated by the Turks. In his camp before Bender he lived in royal fashion as the guest of the Sultan; but the thought of returning vanquished and without an army to his own States, was unendurable to his proud spirit. His three enemies now renewed their former league against Sweden, and Peter extended his conquests on the Baltic. At last Charles succeeded in inducing the Turks to declare war against Russia. A Turkish army was despatched to Moldavia; but the campaign produced no definite result, and when Charles obstinately persisted in remaining under Turkish protection, the Porte at length withdrew its hospitality, and commanded him to quit the country. He still, however, lingered on for several months, until the news reached him that his German possessions also had fallen into the hands of the enemy, and that the Swedes were about to appoint a regent, when he suddenly quitted Turkey, after a five years' sojourn, and journeying without rest or intermission through Hungary and Germany, at last presented himself before the gates of Stralsund (November, 1714).

Death of Charles XII.

THE Swedes in the meantime had made noble efforts to resist their numerous enemies; but the impoverished country was no match for the united forces of the five neighbouring States. The whole of Pomerania, with the island of Rügen, had fallen into the hands of the Prussians, and Wismar also was lost. Still the self-willed king would not hear of peace; and after an expedition into Norway which had ended in total failure, he once more made an attempt at invasion with two armed forces. The smaller division, under Armfeld, directed its attack on Drontheim, but on the approach of winter was compelled to retire without accomplishing anything. About the same time the king was killed before the fortress of Friedrichshall (Dec. 1718), which he was engaged in besieging. As he was standing on a parapet, watching the workmen in the trenches, he was killed by a ball, probably despatched by the hand of an assassin. Charles's death was followed by a transformation in the Constitution, and by a succession of disadvantageous treaties with the allied powers.

Internal Condition of the Northern Countries.

Sweden.

THE Swedish nobility, weary of the long military despotism, now availed themselves of the dispute for the crown to obtain their forfeited rights. Before Ulrica, the younger sister of Charles XII., and her husband Frederick of Hesse-Cassel were raised to the Swedish throne, they were compelled to renounce absolute royal power, and to grant the newly-established aristocratic



BRINGING HOME THE BODY OF CHARLES XII.

Council such an independent position that it gradually attained equal powers of jurisdiction. From this time the royal dignity degenerated to a powerless office, and the Constitution of Sweden became an oppressive oligarchy; and that the Council of State might enjoy its newly gained power in peace and security, treaties were at once concluded with the allied powers, in which the aristocracy showed more regard for their own well-being than for the advantage and honour of the country.

RUSSIA.

IN quite a different fashion did Russia come forth from the conflict. The Czar, who had now assumed the title of Emperor, had added cultivated and prosperous lands to his empire; his newly-established navy had opened out two seas; commerce and manufactures rejoiced in his especial patronage; and rich mines increased the internal wealth of the country. But in spite of the benefits which Peter conferred upon his country, he himself remained a gluttonous and sensual despot to the end of his life. He treated his son Alexis, on whom he vented the aversion which he bore to his neglected wife, with great cruelty; and when the latter openly displayed his dislike of all his father's reforms and innovations, and finally quitted the country, Peter, who was concerned for the existence of his new institutions, caused him to be captured and sentenced to death; but whether Alexis was really executed, or died before the fulfilment of the sentence, is not known. After the death of Peter the Great (1725) there intervened a succession of feeble governments and stormy revolutions. The minister Menzikoff had procured the throne for his former domestic servant, the Empress Katharine, and in her name conducted a despotic government (Katharine I., 1725–27). The same ambitious statesman held the regency during the minority of Peter II. (1727–30), son of the unhappy Alexis, who succeeded Katharine. Dolgorucky, an enterprising nobleman, at last succeeded, however, in bringing about the overthrow of the presumptuous minister, and then organized a *régime* as despotic as that of his predecessor. Peter II. was succeeded by his widow Anna (1730–40), who endeavoured to restore the absolute Imperial power, and placed her whole confidence in her favourite Biron and the two energetic Germans, Ostermann and Münnich, the latter of whom proved himself a brave and capable general. Biron was appointed to act as regent during the minority of Anna's successor Iwan (1740); but Münnich brought about his overthrow, and Iwan's parents, Anna and her husband, Anton Ulrich of Braunschweig Lüneberg, undertook the regency. A conspiracy was however set on foot to subvert the government; Iwan and his parents were imprisoned; and Elizabeth (1741–62), youngest daughter of Peter the Great, was raised to the throne. The immorality of the court of St. Petersburg reached its climax under this voluptuous sovereign; the finances fell into confusion, and the prosperity of the country dwindled away. Lestocq, who had been the means of her acquiring the crown, was banished in 1748 to Siberia; and a new minister, named Bestucheff, then took the management of affairs, to the advantage of Austria, until Elizabeth's death and the accession of Peter III. again brought about a change in affairs.

Poland.

THE scheme of Frederick Augustus II., after his re-instatement, of setting up a royal power in Poland, was rendered fruitless by the resistance of the nobility. His attempt, however, to break the warlike spirit of the aristocracy by the introduction of extravagant luxury and corrupt morality met with more success. Little by little, self-indulgence, sensuality, and love of splendour destroyed the last moral force among the nobility, and were all the more disastrous in their effects, as outward refinement was united with inward coarseness and sensual brutality. With their other misdeeds the Poles also combined a system of persecution against heretics. In violation of the Peace of Oliva, the aristocracy, led by the Jesuits, endeavoured to deprive the dissenters of the civil and religious rights which they had enjoyed for two centuries; and a law was introduced by the Diet forbidding them to build churches. Shortly before the death of Frederick Augustus II. (1733), who dared not take any step in favour of his former religious associates, all dissenters were excluded by a decision of the Diet from national representation, as well as from all State offices. It was therefore hardly to be wondered at that the dissenters should turn their expectant glances towards Russia, who knew how to avail itself advantageously of these dissensions.

The Polish War of Succession (1733 and 1734).

AFTER the death of Frederick Augustus II., the nobles, who met together in a convocation, swore that they would only recognise a native king, and conferred the crown on Stanislaus Lesczinski, whose daughter was married to Louis XV. of France. Russia and Austria, however, favoured the candidature of the son of Frederick Augustus of Saxony, Frederick Augustus III. (1733–1763), who had also gone over to the Catholic Church. Stanislaus Lesczinski, though recognised by the majority of the Polish nation, and assured of French aid, was compelled to yield, and made his escape to Dantzig; but, on his formally renouncing his claim to the crown of Poland, obtained the dukedom of Lorraine. In order to withhold France from war, and to procure its assent to the Pragmatic Sanction, Charles VI. agreed to the extremely disadvantageous preliminary peace of Vienna (Oct. 1735), in which Francis Stephen, duke of Lorraine, son-in-law of the Emperor, exchanged his inheritance for the vacant throne of Tuscany; Lorraine and Bar, on the other hand, fell to Stanislaus, and after his death reverted to France; and Naples and Sicily were handed over to the Spanish prince Don Carlos.



PRUSSIA AND AUSTRIA;

PROGRESS AND CONTENTION.

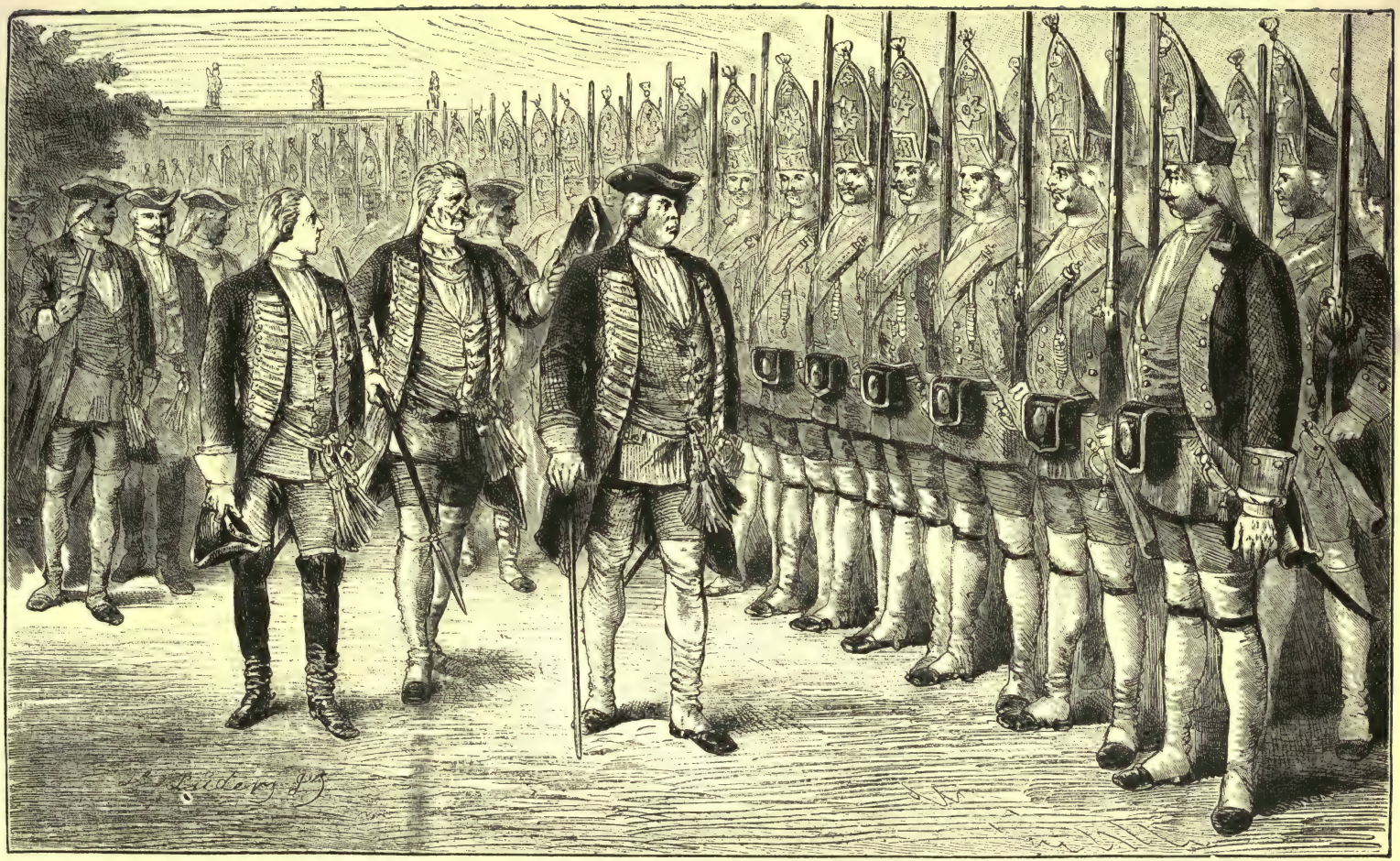
PRUSSIA UNDER THE GREAT ELECTOR. — MILITARY POWER. — THE ELECTOR FREDERICK III. — PRUSSIA A MONARCHY UNDER FREDERICK I.—IMPORTANT REIGN OF FREDERICK WILLIAM I.—ENERGY AND ECCENTRICITY OF THE KING.—THE QUARRELS WITH THE CROWN PRINCE.—THE YOUTH OF FREDERICK II.—HIS IMPRISONMENT AT KÜSTRIN.—MARRIAGE OF THE CROWN PRINCE.—FREDERICK THE GREAT AND THE AUSTRIAN WAR OF SUCCESSION.—THE TURKISH WARS OF CHARLES VI.—THE PRAGMATIC SANCTION.—ACCESSION OF MARIA THERESA.—BREAKING OUT OF WAR, 1740.—CONQUEST OF SILESIA.—THE EMPEROR CHARLES VII. AND HIS MISFORTUNES.—TREATY OF BRESLAU.—BATTLE OF DETTINGEN, ETC. — TREATY OF AIX LA CHAPELLE. — THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR (1756-1763), LOWOSITZ, PIRNA, PRAGUE, KOLLIN, ROSSBACH, LEUTHEN, ZORNDORF. — DISASTERS OF HOCHKIRCH AND KUNNERSDORF. — VICTORIES OF LIEGNITZ AND TORGAU. — CONCLUSION OF THE WAR.—TREATY OF HUBERTSBURG.



FREDERICK WILLIAM, THE GREAT ELECTOR.

PRUSSIA.

FREDERICK WILLIAM, the Great Elector of Brandenburg (1640 1688), increased the stability of his States partly by uniting the



FREDERICK WILLIAM I. AND HIS GIANT GUARDS.

provinces of Prussia and Cleve more closely with the main dominion of Brandenburg, and also by encouraging industrious settlers from various parts to take up their abode in his territory; and lastly by the formation of an important military force, with which he gained for his kingdom an independent position. This judicious and energetic prince was succeeded by his pleasure-loving son, the elector Frederick III. (1688–1713), whom Carlyle rightly designates "a very expensive Herr;" for to him the outward splendour with which Louis XIV. had surrounded the court of Versailles, appeared the highest triumph of kingly dignity. He regarded with envy the electors of Hanover and Saxony, to whom what appeared to him an inestimable treasure, a royal crown, had been awarded; and great was his delight when the Emperor Leopold, after much hesitation, consented to his assuming the royal title; and he was solemnly crowned at Königsberg under the style and title of King Frederick I. of Prussia. The new king then made a brilliant entry into Berlin, which city he endeavoured to make worthy of a royal residence by improving the buildings, laying out gardens and parks, and undertaking great public works. He also showed himself an enlightened patron of the arts and sciences; but his lavish expenditure, combined with the maintenance of a considerable armed force, weighed heavily on the impoverished country. Fortunately, however, this extravagant prince was succeeded by the parsimonious and indeed avaricious Frederick William I. (1713–1740), who was in everything the contrast of his predecessor. Anything that bordered on luxury was now banished from the court; and the jewels and costly vessels which the father had laboriously acquired, were sold by the son to defray the great debts that had been accumulating. All the actions of this wise but eccentric prince bore witness to a strong and often hard nature. He frequently showed a just and upright sentiment and a practical understanding that was proof against the corruptions of luxury and outward pomp. The example of this king practically demonstrated in his government how much might be accomplished by wise economy and the employment of every energy; though one of his eccentricities was his constant endeavour to procure "tall fellows" from every country in Europe for his Potsdam guard of giants, in which force he took great delight. He established many useful institutions, and purchased Stettin and the western portion of Lower Pomerania from Sweden. He left at his death a well-filled treasury, for he had regulated and greatly increased the revenue of the State; and he had also given to Prussia a large and excellently organized army.

Among the eccentric institutions of Frederick William I. was that strange tobacco club, or "Tabagie," at which the king sat, with councillors and generals, sipping Swedish beer between the puffs of the pipe, and at which undignified practical jokes and horseplay were often allowed and encouraged.



THE TOBACCO CLUB, OR "TABAGIE," OF FREDERICK WILLIAM I.

The Youth of Frederick II.



FREDERICK the Crown Prince was in many respects the opposite of his father. While the sturdy, old-fashioned, and rough-mannered king was engaged in wild sports and hunting, the talented and intellectual prince would occupy himself with the study of French authors, and with playing the flute, of which instrument he was passionately fond. The estrangement caused by the difference in their natures became intensified into an actual and bitter quarrel when the king refused his consent to his son's marriage with an English princess, a daughter of George II., to whom the queen of Prussia, a sister of the English king, wished to see her son united. When the young prince attempted to escape from paternal control by secretly flying from the country, he was apprehended by his father's order and confined in the strong fortress of Küstrin, whence he was not released until he had humbly implored the king's pardon. Soon afterwards followed Frederick's marriage with a princess of the Brunswick family; but his intellect

found small satisfaction in the narrow bounds of domestic life; he saw his wife but seldom, and devoted his time to gathering a polite and literary circle round him at Rheinsberg, and reading French translations of ancient writers. For French literature he had a high admiration, and conceived such a veneration for Voltaire that he wrote him the most flattering letters, and regarded his own personal intercourse with so great a thinker as his highest happiness.

The Austrian Wars of Succession (1740–48).—The Turkish Wars of Charles VI.



THE Emperor Charles VI. was a well-intentioned but in no way influential prince, who in his later years forfeited by disadvantageous treaties several of the conquests which had been added to the Austrian monarchy at the beginning of his reign. Scarcely was the Spanish War of Succession terminated, before the Porte already broke the peace of Carlowitz (1714), and once more wrested the wealthy commercial State in the Morea from Venetian supremacy. Austria at once entered into an alliance with the Venetians, which afforded the Osmanli an opportunity for declaring war against Austria. This time, however, the Imperial troops maintained the upper hand. The brilliant victories of Eugene of Savoy at Peterwardein and Belgrade compelled the Porte to consent to the disadvantageous peace of Passarowitz (July 1718), in which, though Turkey retained possession of the Peloponnesus, the Porte was obliged to surrender part of Wallachia, Bosnia, and Servia to Austria. In the next period, however, the military system so degenerated in Austria after Eugene's death, that in the Turkish War in which the Emperor, as the ally of Russia, engaged shortly before his own decease, victory remained with the Osmanli, while the Russians, under the command of Münnich, made bold invasions into Turkish territory. This was quickly followed by the treaty of Belgrade (September 1739), which was disadvantageous to Austria, for in it everything that Austria had gained by the bravery and genius of Eugene was given back to the Turks.

The Pragmatic Sanction.—As Charles VI. had no male heir, it was his most

earnest desire to secure the inheritance of the Austrian hereditary States to his only daughter, Maria Theresa, who was married to duke Francis Stephen of Lorraine. But instead of placing the army in such a condition that his daughter might be able to repel any attack, he purchased at great sacrifices the solemn recognition of this arrangement from all the courts of Europe. The arrangement in question was called the Pragmatic Sanction, in accordance with which the Austrian hereditary territory was to remain undivided, and in case of the male line becoming extinct, was to devolve to the female line. But the Emperor Charles's eyes were scarcely closed before Charles Albert, elector of Bavaria, the husband of Maria Amelia, daughter of the Emperor Joseph I., laid claim to the Austrian States ; and his pretensions were backed with aid from France, Spain, and other powers, who gave their countenance and assistance under the disgraceful condition that, as Emperor of Germany and heir of Austria, he should not demand back again the conquests of the French on the Rhine and in the Netherlands, and should leave the Spaniards unmolested in possession of Italy. Frederick II. of Prussia, however, would not allow this favourable opportunity to pass for asserting the old hereditary claims of his house to the Silesian province, which had been taken by Austria during the Thirty Years' War ; and he consequently upheld the Bavarian elector both in his claims to Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia and in his candidature for the Imperial crown. Russia, being involved in a war with Sweden, remained neutral.

Austria's Disasters.



A FEW weeks after the death of Charles VI. (October, 1740), Frederick II. marched into Silesia with his great and well-disciplined army, to assert the claims which he derived from the relationship of the Brandenburg house with the earlier princes of Leignitz, Brieg, Jägerndorf, and Wohlau. This first Silesian war (1740–42) soon proved that the Prussian people were animated by a new spirit. The troops were commanded by the two practised generals, Fieldmarshal Schwerin and Prince Leopold of Dessau, the former of whom gained a victory over the Austrians in the bloody battle of Molwitz (April, 1741), by which the Prussians gained possession of the larger part of Upper and Lower Silesia. Soon afterwards the French crossed the Rhine with an armed force, one division of which coalesced with the troops of Charles Albert of Bavaria, who, without meeting with any special resistance, penetrated into Austria, and in October received homage as Archduke at Lintz (1741). This was followed by other successes ; Prague was taken, and the Elector of Hanover, George II. of England, was compelled to promise that he would render no aid to the "Queen of Hungary." Indeed, Maria Theresa was at length driven to very great straits when Frederick II. marched his troops into Moravia and Bohemia. In her distress the injured princess, assaulted on all sides, at last turned to Hungary. At a diet at Presburg, where, according to the generally received



STATUE OF PRINCE EUGENE OF SAVOY.

tradition, she appeared with her infant son Joseph in her arms, she excited such enthusiasm among the magnates by the account of her misfortunes and by an appeal to their loyalty and patriotism, that they cried with one voice, "*Vivat Maria Theresa Rex! Moriamur pro rege nostro!*" and called their vassals to arms. In a short time a powerful army from the States of Hungary marched into the field, expelled the French and Bavarian troops, re-conquered the invested towns, and carried their devastations into Bavaria. At the same time also that Charles Albert was being invested with the much-coveted Imperial Crown at Frankfort, in January, 1742, the enemy marched into his capital, Munich, which was occupied by a hostile force, and led on their wild troops as far as the Lech. Robbed of his hereditary possession, the new Emperor Charles VII. soon fell into such straits, that he was only able with French aid to pay for a miserable maintenance. Shortly afterwards, Maria Theresa agreed to the Peace of Breslau, in July, 1742, in which nearly the whole of Upper and Lower Silesia was ceded to Prussia. In a short time the greater part of Bohemia was again in the hands of the Austrians, and siege was already laid to Prague, from which the French commander, Belleisle,

made a sudden retreat to Eger in the middle of winter. In the following year Maria Theresa was crowned at Prague (1743), and at the same time obtained a powerful ally in George II. of Hanover and England. An experienced English general led the so-called "Pragmatic army" to the Maine, accompanied by the king himself and one of his sons, the Duke of Cumberland; and in the battle of Dettingen, not far from Aschaffenburg, gained a decisive victory over the French under Marshal Noailles, in July, 1743. This success was quickly followed by alliances between Austria and Sardinia and Saxony.

Progress of the War.



THE battle of Dettingen and the treaties with Sardinia and Saxony made the Austrian War of succession a European conflict. France, until that time the ally of Charles Albert, now declared war against England and Austria (1744), and entered again into an alliance with Frederick of Prussia, who, in justifiable apprehension that Austria and her new allies would once more dispossess him of Silesia, commenced the second Silesian war against Maria Theresa. While Frederick, as the ally of the threatened Emperor, invaded Bohemia, Charles VII. found an opportunity of winning back his inheritance of Bavaria, and of re-entering Munich, his capital. When, however, Frederick was driven, with heavy losses, out of Bohemia, the Emperor would have been again compelled to take flight, had not death liberated him from all his misfortunes (Jan. 1745). Charles Albert's son, the elector Maximilian Joseph, after a disastrous campaign, offered the hand of peace; and in the treaty of Füssen he renounced all claim to Austria in return for the complete surrender of Bavaria; and on the election of a new Emperor, gave his vote to the husband of Maria Theresa—Francis of Lorraine—who was shortly afterwards crowned at Frankfort as Francis I. At the end of the same year the Peace of Dresden was arranged, in December, 1745, by which Frederick remained in possession of Silesia and Glatz, recognised Duke Francis Stephen as Emperor, and received a million dollars in consideration of the evacuation of Saxony by his troops. The war, which was now ended in Germany, continued for some time longer in the Netherlands and Italy, where the French fought with success under the celebrated Marshal Saxe, a natural son of Frederick Augustus II., called the Strong. On the 12th of May, 1745, the battle of Fontenoy was won by the French, and gloriously lost by the English; and in the following year, after the victory of Raucoux, the Marshal conquered the Austrian Netherlands as far as Luxemburg and Limburg, and threatened the frontier of the States General. Here, as formerly, in the year 1672, the nation was divided into the aristocratic-republican, and the Orange factions. Since the death of William III., the former party had maintained the ascendency; consequently for several years the office of stadtholder remained vacant. Now, however, the people began to rebel against the aristocratic government, and at last succeeded, not only in appointing William IV. (1747–51), of Nassau-Orange, son-in-law of George II., stadtholder and governor of the United States, but declared this office to

be hereditary in his male and female descendants. The war, which now broke out with renewed violence, proved to the advantage of the English at sea. The battle off Cape Finisterre (May, 1747),—when Anson, the brave navigator, was in command,—annihilated the French navy and shipping. By land, on the other hand, the French still continued their victories, in the battle of Laffeld and the brilliant conquest of Maestricht, until the Peace of Aix la Chapelle, which was finally concluded in October, 1748.

The Seven Years' War (1756–1763).—Alliances in 1755.



THE eight years of peace after the Austrian War of Succession were taken advantage of by Frederick the Great for the promotion of industry, the improvement of the peasant-class, and the extension and organization of the army; and by Maria Theresa for the reform of many abuses in the administration, and for concluding important alliances. The Empress could not forget the loss of Silesia to her most hated rival. As early as the year 1746, Elizabeth, the voluptuous sovereign of Russia, who was offended with Frederick's derisive comments on her immoral life, and hoped to gain possession of the favourably-situated provinces on the Baltic, had, through her minister Bestucheff, entered into an alliance with Maria Theresa. This alliance was now renewed, and was also followed by a coalition between Maria Theresa and the French court, brought about by a flattering letter addressed to the Marquise de Pompadour, the all-powerful mistress of Louis XV., with the object of depriving the king of Prussia of his conquests. This close alliance between France and Austria filled England, who was at variance with the French court regarding the frontiers in North America, with apprehension, and brought about a coalition between Frederick II. and George II. for the removal of foreign soldiers from German soil (Jan., 1756).

Pirna (1756). Frederick, determined to be beforehand with his opponents, suddenly marched into Saxony with an army of 70,000 brave Prussians, invested Leipzig, Torgau, Wittenberg, and Dresden, from which capital the elector-king made a precipitate escape, and established a Prussian administration of the country. The Saxon troops had taken up a strong position near Pirna, on the Elbe, where they were only compelled by hunger to surrender. Frederick surrounded them with one portion of his army, and with the other advanced to meet the Austrian field-marshal, Brown, near Lowositz, where, on October the first, 1756, he inflicted on him a decisive defeat with his much smaller army, and compelled the famished Saxon troops to capitulate.



FREDERICK THE GREAT AFTER THE BATTLE OF KOLLIN.

Prague, Kollin, Rossbach, Leuthen, 1757.—Frederick now left the conflict with the French, who had crossed the Rhine and were approaching the Weser, to his allies, England, Hanover, etc., and sending a portion of his troops against the Russians, who had invaded Prussia, he himself advanced with the main army to attack the Austrians in Bohemia. Through the brave efforts of his troops and the courage and heroic death of Schwerin, Frederick won the brilliant, but dearly-bought, victory of Prague (May, 1757). The capital, however, still resisted all attacks; and in the following month the defeat at Kollin deprived the king of Prussia of all his advantages. Pursued by the Austrians, he retired with the remains of his army to Upper Lusatia, and soon afterwards gained the brilliant battle of Rossbach (November, 1757) over the French troops, commanded by Prince Soubise. From that time Frederick was the hero of the day, and the pride of Protestant Germany.

In the meantime, the Austrians had made successful advances into Silesia. Winterfeld, Frederick's confidant, had fallen, Schweidnitz and Breslau, with their well-filled magazines and arsenals, fell into the hands of the enemy, and many brave Prussians languished in confinement. Frederick now appeared, however, and with his "Berlin serjeant's-guard," as the foe mockingly termed his army, brought about a speedy transformation of affairs. In the battle of Leuthen he won a glorious victory over the three times stronger forces of the enemy, and once more gained possession of Breslau and the whole of Silesia.



FREDERICK THE GREAT ADDRESSING THE TROOPS BEFORE LEUTHEN.

Zorndorf, Hochkirch (1758).—Since the battle of Rossbach, Frederick had been the idol of the people in England; and the ministry, in which the elder Pitt (Lord Chatham) possessed the greatest influence, now offered the king of Prussia support in money and troops, and allowed him to nominate the general. Frederick appointed as commander of the allied army the astute Ferdinand of Braunschweig, who, at the beginning of the spring, drove the French across the Rhine, defeated them in the battle of Crefeld (1758), and through the whole summer defended North Germany from their rapacious invasions. The Russian minister Bestucheff had in the meantime fallen into ill-favour with Elizabeth, and was now replaced by Fermor, who conducted a large army to the Oder. Prussia was occupied, and the citizens of Königsberg were compelled to render homage; the savage hordes next overran Brandenburg, laid Küstrin in ashes, and spread fire, murder, and devastation throughout the country. Then Frederick made a masterly retreat from Moravia to the Oder, and checked the further advance of the Russians by the murderous battle of Zorndorf (August, 1758), when the Prussians, principally through the skill of the brave cavalry leader, Seydlitz, the hero of Rossbach, obtained a dearly-bought victory. Frederick now wished to go to the relief of his brother Henry in Saxony; but having been surprised in an unfavourable position, he lost in the night surprise of Hochkirch all his ammunition and many brave warriors.

Reverses and Disaster.

SOON, however, a fresh storm broke over Frederick's head. Maria Theresa once more obtained the assurance of renewed assistance in men and money from France; and Elizabeth endeavoured by new victories to wipe out the remembrance of Zorndorf, and despatched fresh troops, under Soltikoff, to take the field against the Prussians. A division of his army which Frederick despatched against the Russians, to prevent their coalition with the Austrians, was defeated near Züllichau (July, 1759); and when he himself attacked the united forces of his opponents, not far from Frankfort, with a much smaller army, he sustained such a complete defeat in the bloody battle of Kunersdorf (August, 12th), that he began to despair of a successful issue of the war, and despondently longed for death. "Everything is lost," he wrote to his minister, Finkenstein; "let the royal family make its escape. Adieu for ever!" Among the numerous warriors who fell on the battle-field of Kunersdorf was the poet Ewald von Kleist, "both a poet and a hero." The way to Berlin now stood open to the enemy; but the disunion between the Russians and Austrians proved that the victory would not be profited by as Maria Theresa desired. On the contrary, Dresden and other parts of Saxony were again lost, after the unfortunate capitulation of Maxen (November, 1759).

In the meantime, Frederick's allies, under Ferdinand of Braunschweig, fought against the French with more success. Certainly the Duke de Broglie gained the ascendency in the battle of Bergen, near Frankfort; but Ferdinand's brilliant victory near Minden drove the French army back across the Rhine, and saved Westphalia and Hanover.



DEATH OF MARSHAL SCHWERIN AT PRAGUE.

LIEGNITZ.—TORGAU (1760).

DISASTERS had so weakened the Prussian army, that on the war breaking out again the king was obliged, contrary to his usual custom, to act on the defensive. After the loss of Silesia in the defeat of Fouquet near Landshut, Frederick surrendered Saxony, in order to reconquer Silesia. And though two Austrian armies endeavoured to frustrate his design, he nevertheless achieved his object by the brilliant victory of Liegnitz on the Katzbach over Laudon's troops (August, 1760), and prevented the union of the Austrian and Russian forces. This was followed in the same year by the hard-won victory of Torgau, by which the Prussian king regained possession of Saxony, and was able to take up his winter quarters in Leipzig.

In spite, however, of the warlike deeds of the Prussian armies, Frederick seemed as though he must inevitably succumb to the evil fates which assailed him on all sides. Dresden and a portion of Saxony were in Daun's power; and through the possession of the fortress of Glatz, Laudon had made a stand in Upper Silesia. Prussia was in the hands of the Russians; the Swedes were in Pomerania; and two French armies of more than 150,000 men had crossed the Rhine. The number of his enemies was also increased by the addition of Spain, which, since the accession of Charles III., had been allied with France, and which soon afterwards became most closely connected with French interests, through the family league of the Bourbon courts. But

Frederick went forward courageously and resolutely to meet his foes. While Prince Henry defended Saxony against Daun, and Ferdinand of Brunswick and his nephew successfully repelled the French forces under Marshals Broglie and Soubise in the west of Germany, Frederick himself endeavoured to drive the Austrians out of Silesia, and to prevent their union with the Russians.

Conclusion of the War.—Treaty of Peace (1762–1763).



WHILE Frederick was in his greatest extremity, the Empress Elizabeth died (Jan., 1762), and her nephew, Peter III., the greatest admirer of the Prussian monarch, ascended the throne. This change soon brought about a transformation in affairs; Peter, a good-natured but thoughtless prince, who went so far in his admiration for Frederick that he wore Prussian uniform, at once set the prisoners of war at liberty, and not only surrendered every conquest, but concluded with Frederick a league of offence and defence, in consequence of which a Russian army united with the Prussians. Sweden also renounced participation in a war which brought the country neither honour nor profit. Peter III., however, was barbarously murdered, at the instigation of his wife Katharine, after a six months' reign (July, 1762); but Katharine II., who now seized the power which rightly belonged to her son Paul, ratified the concluded treaty. She nevertheless dissolved the alliance with Frederick, and summoned her troops home. But before their retirement the king of Prussia, with the help of the Russian general, won the battle of Buckersdorf, when Frederick with great efforts regained possession of Schweidnitz and the larger part of Silesia; while Prince Henry, after the victory of Freiberg, cleared Saxony of the Imperial troops. The German people, whose lands were devastated and whose prosperity was utterly destroyed, despairing, begged for peace; Austria also was exhausted by the long war. An armed truce, concluded between Prussia, France, and Austria, afforded an opportunity for negotiations, which at the beginning of the following year resulted in the Peace of Paris, and a few days later in the Peace of Hubertsburg (Feb., 1763). In this peace the possession of Silesia was secured to the king of Prussia for ever, while he was compelled to surrender all his other conquests. From this time forth Prussia took its rank among the five great European powers.

In the meantime a variable war by sea and land was being carried on between England and France in America and Europe. When the island of Minorca, which was ceded to England in the Peace of Utrecht, was captured by the Duke de Richelieu, and the troops sent by England fought with but small success, the English nation gave such loud expression to their dissatisfaction that the ministry resolved to conciliate the people by a sacrifice. They put the blame of the loss of Minorca on Admiral Byng, and caused

him to be tried by a court-martial, and shot on the deck of his ship. But when William Pitt entered the ministry affairs took a different turn. The English commanders conquered Quebec, where the victorious General Wolfe died a hero's death, and occupied Canada ; and English admirals defeated the French fleets and stopped all intercourse with America. But by the influence of Lord Bute, Pitt was dismissed, and the English ministry abolished the treaty with Prussia, and then entered into negotiations with France and Spain. In the Peace of Paris, England was richly compensated by the acquisition of Canada and Florida (for which Spain obtained Louisiana from France) and of the island of Granada.



WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM.



THE PERIOD OF REVOLUTION.

PRECURSORS OF THE REVOLUTION.—THE PHILOSOPHERS.—SIR ISAAC NEWTON.—JOHN LOCKE.—SHAFTESBURY.—TINDAL.—BOLINGBROKE.—GIBBON AND HUME THE HISTORIANS.—THE HETERODOX LITERATURE OF FRANCE.—VOLTAIRE, THE CHIEF OF THE SCEPTICS.—MONTESQUIEU.—JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU.—THE HOLBACH CLUB AND THE ENCYCLOPÆDISTS.—DIDEROT.

SCEPTICISM AND FREETHOUGHT, AND ITS LITERATURE.

THE attacks which were directed throughout the course of the 18th century against religion and the Church, and against existing State constitutions and social conditions, led to a complete transformation in the opinions and habits of thought of the higher classes. Superstition and ecclesiastical restriction disappeared; the absolute form of government and patriarchal rule were shaken; but the blows which were aimed at tyranny and abuses, also tended to dispel veneration toward princes and rulers from the hearts of the people. It was a mighty struggle between philosophy, primitive slavery, old-fashioned abuses, and everything in Church and State which ran counter to the inviolable rights of the spirit and intellect. The conflict with ecclesiastical beliefs proceeded from England, where two powerful minds, Newton (1642–1727) and Locke (1632–1704), laid the basis for a new development of culture. Newton's discovery of gravitation as the all-governing principle of the universe, exercised a powerful influence, not only on natural science and astronomy, but also on the conceptions of religion. Locke, the tutor and friend of the intellectual Earl of Shaftesbury, after having established, in his "Essay on the Human Understanding,"—a

system which, starting from the perception of the senses, destroys all knowledge of super-sensual things, in so far as they are not results of our own mental activity,—endeavoured by a number of writings on Church, State, and education, to introduce into the Church rationalism and religious toleration, without however making a hostile attack on the Establishment. Through Condillac his doctrines found access into France. Incited by Locke, the witty and intellectual Shaftesbury (died 1713), grandson of the before-mentioned statesman, devoted himself to the study of sceptical philosophy, which had been originated in the Netherlands by Bayle and other Frenchmen, and directed his fine irony, his wit, and satire against the doctrines of the Church and all religion founded on revelation. His principal works are "Characteristics of Men, Manners, and Times," "The Moralist," and the treatise on "Merit and Virtue."

Not out of an inclination for mockery and satire, like Shaftesbury, but from motives of vanity, Locke's learned friend Collins (died 1729) arrived at similar results. Participation in the disputes of two orthodox believers led him to scepticism. Among his writings the "Discourse on Freethought," and the "Investigation of Biblical Prophecies," are the best known. The Church was also attacked more boldly, but to a certain extent less skilfully, by a number of writers who are known by the name of Deists, because they opposed the doctrine of the Trinity, and taught that worship should only be rendered to one Supreme Being. Of these writers may be mentioned Tindal (died 1733), author of a book on the "False Churches," and "Christianity as Old as the World;" Wollaston (died 1724), who endeavoured to establish, in his "Description of Natural Religion," a religion of pure reason; and Morgan, Mandeville, and various others.



VOLTAIRE.

More important than these Deist writers was the celebrated Lord Bolingbroke (died 1751), famous as a statesman and party leader, of whom his friend Voltaire declared that he united with the philosophy of an Englishman all the *finesse* of a Frenchman. His most remarkable work is his "Letters on the Study of History." To his doctrines leaned England's greatest historians: Gibbon (died 1797), the talented author of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," and Hume (died 1776), who wrote a "History of England," and a light, sceptical philosophy of life. The Scotch divine, Robertson (died 1793), on the other hand, showed neither the French culture nor the heretical opinions of these sceptical writers. His valuable works, "History of Scotland in the Reign of Mary Stuart," "History of the Reign of Charles V.," and "History of America," are conscientious and reliable, but dry and wanting in inspiration. The poet Pope (died 1744), on the other hand, who made Homer accessible to the English people, did homage to French refinement and the philosophy of Bolingbroke, which maintained that men were guided in worldly things by selfishness, and in religion must obey the dictates of their

reason; and in the "Satires" of Swift (died 1745), ecclesiasticism and the faith of the Church were equally derided with the vanities of society and the faults of the government.

The Heterodox Literature of France.

Voltaire, Montesquieu, Rousseau.

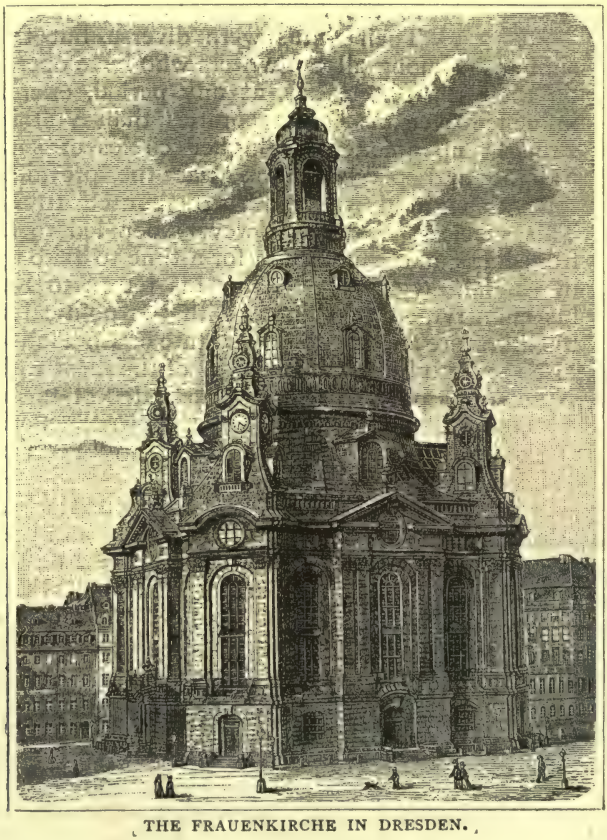
THE literary activity of these three men, whose philosophical works, embellished with all the charm of language and style, were read by the whole of cultured Europe, contributed more than anything else to the transformation in the traditional views of Church and State, as well as to the extermination of prejudices and abuses. Their paths were diverse, but the results were similar. Among all the writers who have operated powerfully on their time, none has, at any period, exercised a greater influence over his contemporaries than Voltaire (1694–1778). Brought up among the higher circles of society, in which a light and playful satire was the prevailing intellectual tone, this gifted writer devoted himself to satirical poetry. This species of writing, however, soon led to his banishment from Paris, and caused him for a time to take up his residence in England (1726–29). After his return to France, he made his countrymen acquainted with the political and social life, the literature and the religious state of England in his "English Letters." Voltaire set forth his views in works of the most varied description —in satires, romances, and poems, the most celebrated of the latter being his epic poem, the "Henriade." Among his historical writings are the Histories of the "Period of Louis XIV.," of "Charles XII.," and "Peter the Great," and many political disquisitions.

Montesquieu.—In the "Persian Letters," Montesquieu attacks, with the same light raillery as Voltaire, the religious belief of the age, and the whole system of French education and government, and throws ridicule on the customs and social conditions of his contemporaries. In his philosophical treatise on "The Cause of the Greatness and Decline of Rome," he sought to represent that patriotism and confidence in one's own strength makes a State great, but that despotism leads to its destruction. His third work is called "The Spirit of the Laws."

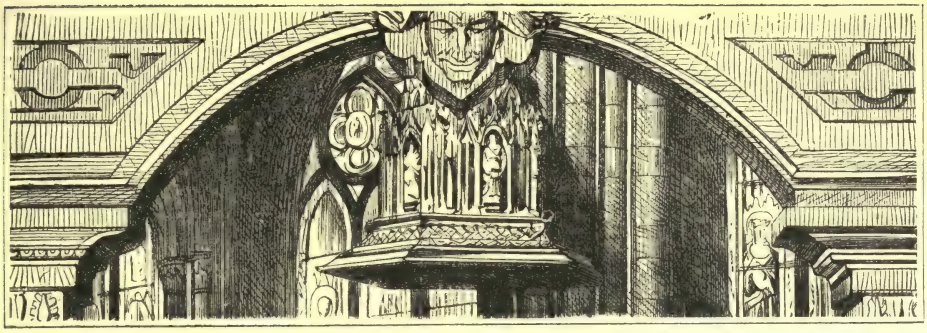
Rousseau.—The greatest influence on the transformation of the opinions and thoughts of the time was exercised by Jean Jacques Rousseau. He was born at Geneva, and it was intended that he should follow his father's trade of a watchmaker; he however made his escape from the severity of his teacher, and afterwards led an eventful life, now in Savoy and Northern Italy, now in Paris, now as the persecuted fugitive from the Holy Office, in the Canton of Neuenburg, under the protection of Frederick II., and again in England with the historian Hume, until, weighed down with melancholy and weariness of life, he died suddenly at the residence of one of his admirers,

not far from Paris. His principal works are his "Confessions," a memoir of his life, "The Social Contract," and "The New Heloise."

The Holbach Club and the Encyclopædists.—A number of talented writers, who for the most part gathered round the German Baron Holbach, in Paris, now carried their destructive zeal to the greatest extreme, agreeing as to the negative side of the doctrines of Condillac and Locke, but leaving the positive meaning out of the question. Several works, such as "The Natural System," of which Holbach himself was regarded as the author, and "Spirit," by Helvetius (died 1771), sought to prove the eternal character of matter (Materialists) and to represent self-love and selfishness as the only motives of human action. In the union of this impulse with the public welfare, they recognised the measure of morality and truth. Similar views were held by the so-called Encyclopædists—the writers of the famous Encyclopædia, edited by the indefatigable Diderot, who died in 1784, and the acute philosopher and mathematician d'Alembert.



THE FRAUENKIRCHE IN DRESDEN.



ATTEMPTS AT REFORM IN VARIOUS STATES OF EUROPE.

PORTUGAL UNDER PETER II. AND HIS SUCCESSORS., JOHN V., JOSEPH EMANUEL I. — OPPOSITION TO THE JESUITS.—POMBAL AND HIS REFORMS.—CHARLES IV.—THE NORTH OF EUROPE.—DENMARK. —STRUENSEE.—FREDERICK IV.— CHRISTIAN VI.—FREDERICK V.— CHRISTIAN VII.—COUNT STRUENSEE, HIS CAREER AND DEATH. —SWEDEN.—WILLMANSTRAND.— GUSTAVUS III. — GUSTAVUS IV. —GERMANY IN THE TIME OF FREDERICK II. — THE GERMAN EMPIRE.—BAVARIAN SUCCESSION. —MARIA THERESA.



PORTUGAL AND POMBAL.

THE period of king Peter II., and his feeble successors was a disastrous time for Portugal. The colonies fell into the hands of foreign possessors, trade and navigation were at a standstill, and native industry was paralysed, especially since the commercial dominion of the British had been established in the country by means of the treaty of 1703, which procured English woollen goods free entrance into Portugal, and made the once active people entirely dependent upon England. John V. (1705–1750), who was blindly devoted to the clergy, squandered the revenues of the country in the building of churches and monasteries, and left the government in the hands of the clergy. To this state of affairs the enlightened but despotic Pombal, the all-powerful minister of king Joseph Emanuel I. (1750–1777), endeavoured to offer an effectual check; and, as he regarded the Jesuits as the chief authors of the prevailing misery, he first directed his attacks against the wealthy and powerful Society of Jesus. A land dispute in South America, where the order had established in Paraguay a kingdom of its own, inaccessible to all strangers, and possessing a patriarchial constitution, afforded the welcome opportunity for the first hostile steps. But not till a mysterious

attempt against the king's life on the part of the noble family of Tavora, which appeared to have been instigated by the Jesuits (1758), was their banishment decided on, and carried out with great severity. With the same earnestness Pombal sought to improve the faulty condition of the administration, of agriculture, the military system, and the administration of justice. When a terrible earthquake at Lisbon destroyed 30,000 houses (Nov., 1755), and crime and desperation threatened to loosen every bond, he set himself assiduously to the rectification of the disaster. On the rebuilding of the town he insisted on the necessity of having broad streets, and suitable, well-built dwelling-houses; and beautified Lisbon with handsome, commodious buildings, such as the Bourse, Merchants' House, Arsenal, etc. When Portugal, the ally of England, was threatened by Spain in the Seven Years' War, and the miserable condition of the army became apparent, Pombal summoned the famous general, Duke William of Lippe-Schaumburg, and with his help soon brought



RUINS OF ST. NICOLAS'S CHURCH IN LISBON AFTER THE EARTHQUAKE OF 1755.

the Portuguese army to such a state of efficiency that it was second to that of no other nation. Nevertheless Pombal gave ample evidence, that with the exalted courage of an enterprising reformer he combined the cruelty and capricious temper of a despot. All the prisons were filled with priests and nobles, and threatening voices were raised against him, when, in the reign of Joseph's weak and superstitious daughter Maria, the released prisoners came forth in hundreds from their dungeons, and loudly demanded vengeance. Pombal was tried before a court of justice, and was then banished from the neighbourhood of the royal residence. In a short time all his reforms were annulled; priests and monks again held sway at court; superstition, im-

morality, and ignorance once more prevailed among the people, and the nation again fell into the lamentable condition from which Pombal's vigorous hand had endeavoured to rescue it. Maria at last became deranged, so that her son John VI. was compelled to take the government upon himself (1816).

Spain and Naples under Charles III. and his Ministers.



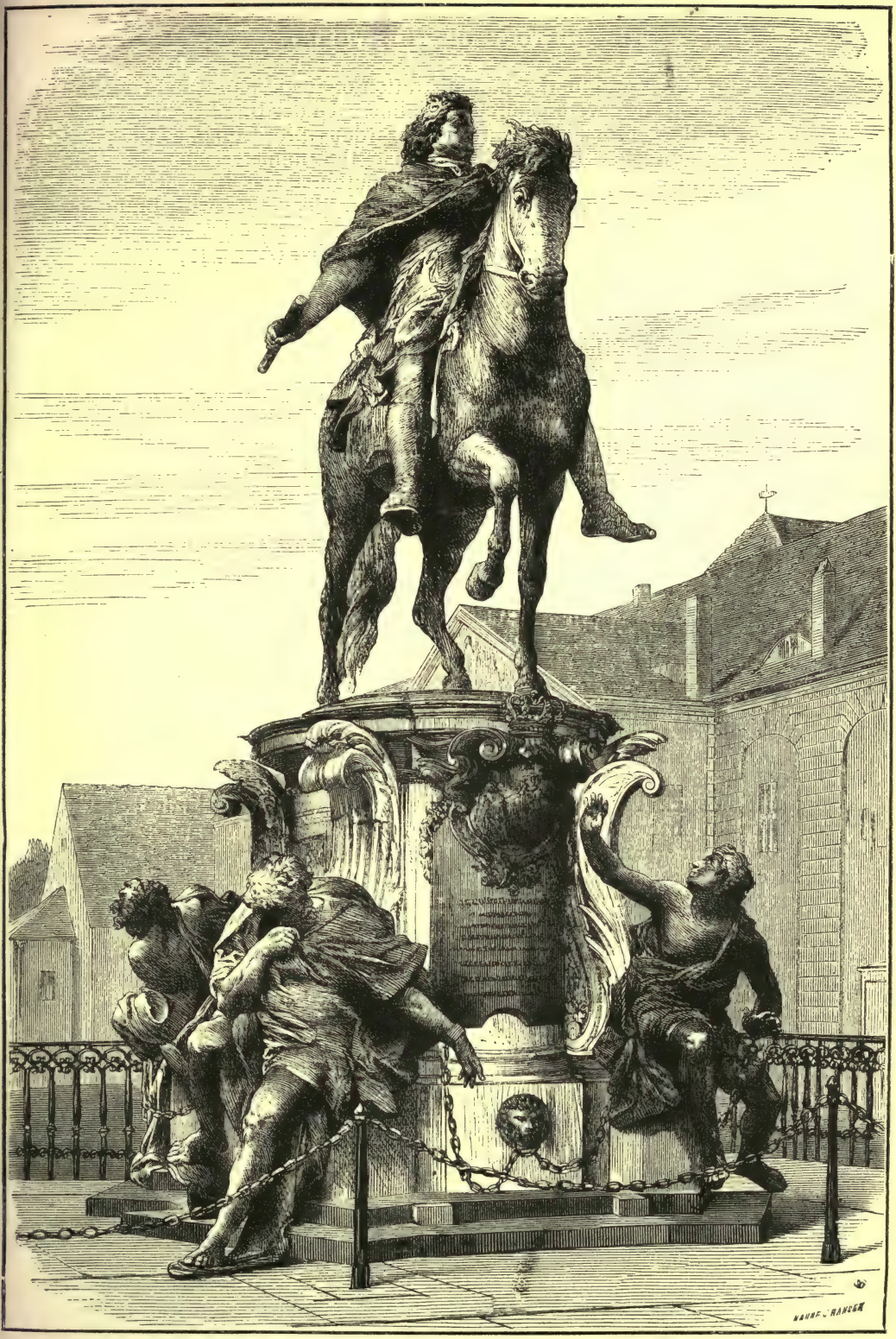
CHARLES III. (1759–1788) endeavoured, first as king of Naples (since 1735), and then as king of Spain, by means of his ministers Aranda, Grimaldi, etc., to reform the conditions of Church and State in the manner demanded by the development of the people and the national prosperity. As the order of Jesuits, however, opposed hindrances to all his efforts, the Bourbon court contemplated following the example of Pombal. In France, fresh evidence had come to light showing the loose morality and dangerous principles of the order, which had caused the king, at the instigation of his minister Choiseul, to declare the existence of the order of Jesuits to be incompatible with the welfare of the State, and to order their colleges to be closed. This incited the Spanish minister Aranda to a bold stroke. After a pretended insurrection on the part of the Jesuits, he caused 5,000 members of the order to be imprisoned in one night, their property to be confiscated, and their institutions closed. Similar violent measures were taken in the Spanish and Portuguese colonies of America, in Naples, where Janucci ruled almost absolutely under Ferdinand IV. (1759–1825), and in Parma, where the Pope endeavoured by a threatening bull to prevent the Duke de Bourbon and his French minister from venturing on any Church innovations. After many useful reforms, Aranda was subsequently dismissed from his office, and the priests once more asserted their influence over the aged Charles III. A similar change of sentiment was experienced by another Spanish minister, Florida Blanca, who, during the reign of Charles IV. (1788–1808), was glorified as a Mæcenas, because he favoured learning and culture, patronized the arts, and beautified the capital.

THE NORTH OF EUROPE.

DENMARK. STRUENSEE.



BY means of the change effected in the Constitution, the Danish sovereignty, from the year 1660, had become absolute, and the state of the country was determined only by the characteristics of its ruler. Frederick IV. (1700–1730) imitated the magnificence of the French court, but left behind him a prosperous country and a well-filled exchequer. His successor, Christian VI. (1730–1746), was a devotee, and so completely neglected his administration that the kingdom fell into debt. The reign of Frederick V. (1746–1766) is renowned as the golden age of Denmark in science and art. Magnificent buildings were erected, academies were established, a botanical garden was laid out; and plays and operas, which had been forbidden during the previous reign, again delighted the nobility and inhabitants of the capital. Klopstock received an annuity for the completion of his "Messiah;" and large sums were expended on an expedition undertaken by celebrated scholars (among whom was the elder Niebuhr) to the East; but for the improvement of the condition of the poorer classes, the peasants and labourers, little was attempted; and it was only through the exertions of Count Bernstorf the elder, who set at liberty the enslaved peasantry on his estate, that the Crown and the nobility were at last compelled to turn their attention to the amelioration of the condition of the common people. Christian VII. (1766–1808) was a feeble and misguided prince, who was devoted to sensual indulgences and foolish extravagance. Soon after his accession to the throne he undertook an unnecessary and expensive journey, the outlay for which fell heavily on the poor nation. From this journey the king returned weakened in body and shaken in mind; thereupon the German physician Struensee, a handsome and cultivated young man, who was born at Halle and had won the favour of the king by his lively companionship during the journey, was able without difficulty to make himself indispensable to his sovereign, and, with the help of queen Caroline Matilda, a sister of George III. of England, to rise step by step until, as Count and all-powerful minister, he governed the monarch and the State according to his own pleasure. He dismissed all the former ministers and companions of the king, and surrounded the monarch, whose feebleness of mind became more and more evident, with reliable persons; among these was an able man named Brand, who, like Struensee, had been raised to the rank of duke, and who was remarkable both for the influence he exercised and for his tragic death. Struensee then instituted a number of reforms in Denmark, through which the power of the government was increased and social equality was established; but he offended the national feeling by the use of the German



MONUMENT TO THE GREAT ELECTOR AT BERLIN.

language in his edicts and in the administration of justice, and annoyed the clergy by lessening the severe Church discipline. Under these circumstances the abolition of the censorship was a very hazardous proceeding, as the press now principally directed its attacks against the minister himself. The threatening storm soon broke forth; and the outburst was hastened by the want of courage and decision shown by Struensee. Together with Brand, he was thrown into prison, and after a confinement of five weeks, was brought before a special tribunal, and sentenced to be beheaded (April, 1772).

Sweden under Gustavus III.

THE government of the nobility under the apparent supremacy of a king, which was established after the murder of Charles XII. of Sweden, brought about a period of dishonour. The dominant aristocracy, or oligarchy, consisted of people without honourable feeling or patriotism, who sold themselves to foreign States, and served those courts from which they obtained the largest sums. Two hostile parties stood opposed to one another, the one being in the pay of France, the other of Russia. On the breaking out of the Austrian War of Succession, the French government wished to engage the attention of Russia, to avert its coalition with Maria Theresa. Through the agency of the French party in Sweden, war was therefore declared against Russia, an occasion having been afforded by the murder of a Swedish ambassador by Russian soldiers (1741). The Swedish troops were, however, decisively beaten at Willmanstrand, in Finland, and were so entirely surrounded at Helsingfors that they would have been compelled to surrender Finland to the Russians, had not the empress Elizabeth abated her demands in the Peace of Abo, with the stipulation that the injustice to the kindred line of Holstein-Gottorp should be redressed. The Swedes appointed the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, Adolphus Frederick, as heir to the throne, and agreed to the surrender of Finland as far as the river Kymene. During the reign of the weak king Adolphus Frederick (1757–71), the Swedish nobility were able to limit the royal prerogative still further, and to completely destroy all the power and authority of the Crown. In opposition to the wishes of the king, who was related to the Prussian court, Sweden was drawn into the Seven Years' War, which brought the impoverished country into the most lamentable condition. This led to the overthrow of the French party; but the new oligarchy of the Russian party tyrannized over king and people no less than their predecessors, until Adolphus Frederick, by the threat of relinquishing the crown, compelled the despots to summon a special diet, which resulted in the king regaining somewhat of his lost authority.

On the death of Adolphus Frederick, his son Gustavus III. (1771–92) ascended the throne, and availing himself of the dissensions among the nobility, and the hatred of the people towards the prevailing oligarchy, succeeded in obtaining the allegiance of the guards in the capital, in subverting the Constitution, and once more establishing the authority and supremacy of the throne (1772). Of the reforms set on foot by Gustavus III. after this revolution in the government, some, such as the improvements in the courts of justice and the founding of hospitals, were to the advantage of the people; but the greater part proceeded from the king's love of splendour and desire of imitating French institutions. His often ill-advised innovations excited the anger of the nobility against him; and their hostile sentiments were soon shown when Gustavus, without appealing to the States, commenced a war against

Russia (1788), in order to re-conquer the former Swedish possessions. The Finnish army, corrupted by Russian negotiators, declared, after a few battles, that it was opposed to the unconstitutional war. Completely confounded, Gustavus quitted the army, and appealed to the people, especially to the vigorous Dalekarls in the northern mountainous region, who soon placed him in a position to take vengeance on his enemies. By means of the Unification and Security Act, the king assumed the right of making war without appealing to the States, abolished the Assembly of the kingdom, and permitted the citizen class to have access to all offices. After concluding the Peace of Werelæ with Russia (Aug., 1790), Gustavus entered into an alliance with his former enemy, with the object of making war on France, to oppose the propagation of revolutionary ideas, and to keep alive his sense of chivalry by aiding in the protection of the unfortunate Louis XVI. He was, however, shortly afterwards assassinated at a masked ball, by his former officer of the guard, Ankarstroem. His son, Gustavus IV. (1792–1809), who was placed under the guidance of his uncle Charles of Sudermania until he attained his majority, inherited his father's chivalrous caprices, but carried them to such an unfortunate extreme that they ultimately brought about his deposition.

Germany in the Time of Frederick the Great.—The German Empire.

FOR a long time the German Empire had lost all importance as a united State; and both the head and the different members followed their own interests, without regard for the general welfare. The diet at Regensburg had forfeited all authority; it spent its energies in speeches and negotiations, but rarely arrived at any decision, or if it did, possessed no power to enforce it. Foreigners, or native princes whose interests were estranged from the Empire, made Germany the scene of their disputes, and treated the divided and quarrelsome States with arrogance and contempt. When, after many years' deliberation, the establishment of an Imperial army was decided on, it was in such a defective and miserable condition that it was the subject of general ridicule. The declaration of the ban against Frederick II. in the Seven Years' War was received with laughter and derision; and so little weight had the German Empire in the issues of the war, that it was not represented at the peace negotiations at Hubertsburg, and the decisions were made without its co-operation. The diet had only the Emperor to thank for having, with patriotic solicitude for the preservation of the Constitution, had regard to the dignity and liberty of the Empire, though Germany's desolate plains and plundered districts long bore witness to the wounds which war had inflicted.

Plans of Joseph II.

THE lamentable condition of the German Empire filled the energetic Emperor, Joseph II. (1765–90), with dissatisfaction, and awakened within him the desire of removing the prevailing evils by suitable reforms. Scarcely therefore had he become the possessor of the Imperial throne of Germany, on the death of his father, than he strictly forbade the Imperial Court of Vienna,

which in many respects had a far worse notoriety than the judicial court at Wetzlar, from receiving any kind of gift or "recognition," and compelled it to undertake a more expeditious despatch of public business. But although every one was convinced of the necessity of an improvement in the administration of justice, yet the inquiry instituted soon came to a standstill on account of the dread of the States of any innovation. After nine years' labour the Commission separated "with mutual bitterness." While this attempt to rectify the most apparent evils in the rotten structure had inspired the princes with alarm, the Emperor's scheme of availing himself of the change of throne in Bavaria to acquire some of the favourably situated lands, was still more critical. With Maximilian Joseph the Bavarian line of the house of Wittelsbach became extinct (1777), and the electorate fell to the next heir, Charles



MARIA THERESA'S GENERALS, DAUN AND LAUDOHN.

Theodore of the Palatinate. This prince, having no lawful heir and no love for his inherited country, was easily persuaded to recognise Joseph's claims to Lower Bavaria and the Upper Palatinate, that by the surrender of these districts he might obtain advantages for his natural children. Frederick II., apprehensive at the aggrandisement of Austria and at the Emperor's rapacity, endeavoured to prevent this design by inducing the next heir to protest against the convention in the Diet; and, when this proved unavailing, by despatching an army into Bohemia, to oppose by force any alteration in the existing order of things. This led to the Bavarian War of Succession (1778–79), in which, however, more was effected by the pen in the learned disputations of jurists, than by the sword in the battlefield; and as all the States decried a general war, Russia and France succeeded in inducing the

Empress Maria Theresa to accept the Peace of Tischen (May 1779), in which Bavaria was secured to the Palatinate house, Innviertel and Brannan were given to the house of Austria, and the right of succession in the margravates



MARIA THERESA, THE EMPRESS-QUEEN.

of Ansbach and Bayreuth was awarded to Prussia. This peace afforded Russian statecraft the first opportunity for interference in the affairs of the German Empire. After the death of Maria Theresa, the Emperor, who was indignant at the frustration of his plans, made a second attempt to gain

possession of Bavaria, by endeavouring to exchange the Austrian Netherlands for the kingdom of Burgundy. Charles Theodore also allowed himself to be persuaded to this arrangement, and Russian diplomatists endeavoured with flattering promises to gain the consent of the Duke of Deuxponts. But Frederick II. sought, by the organization of the princely league (1785), the aim of which was the independence of the princes and the preservation of the Empire in its existing condition, to counteract this scheme also, and to secure the succession in Bavaria once more to the Palatinate line. The princes' alliance elevated the power and importance of the Prussian king in the same proportion that it undermined the authority of the Emperor. For this transformation in the previous history of both States, Frederick had to thank the "Prussian Union," which in former years he had on many occasions endeavoured to counteract. Thus the king of Prussia became the protector of the German Constitution. But in spite of this feeble union, the bonds which kept the German Empire together became more and more loosened. Every prince strove for independent, unlimited power, and formed a small court which, in splendour, extravagance, language, art, and literature, was an imitation of the court of Versailles.

Austria.—In Austria, where the States did not limit the Imperial power, Joseph II. could carry out his reforms with better success than in Germany. Maria Theresa had during her forty years' reign (1740–80) already abolished many abuses, and introduced many suitable reforms in the army and navy, the administration of justice, and the control of the finances. But in all her regulations she had had regard to the rights of the nations subject to her sceptre, to the faith of the people, and to the relationships between the States, and therefore prevented her too impetuous son from participating in the administration of the hereditary States, and allowed him as little influence in State affairs as her husband Francis I. Scarcely had the young Emperor become supreme ruler of the Austrian Empire, by the death of his mother (Nov. 1780), than he commenced a succession of reforms, some of which gave offence to the clergy, while others annoyed the privileged nobility, although all his schemes were inspired by the noblest aims and motives.



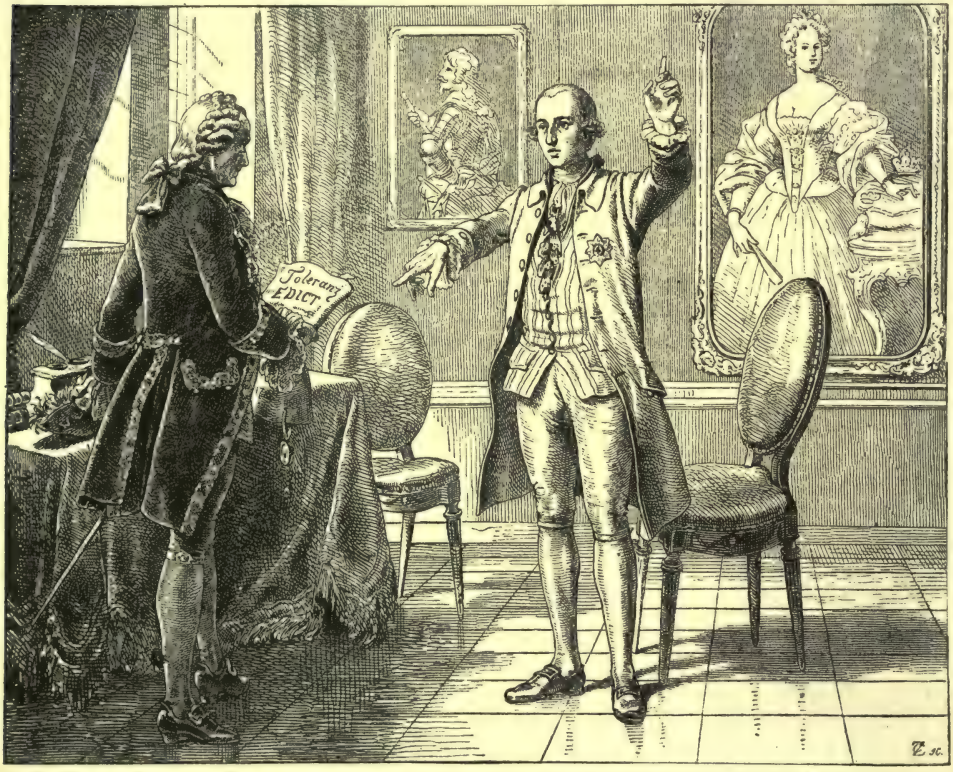
THE TIMES OF THE EMPEROR JOSEPH II. AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

BENEVOLENT DESIGNS OF JOSEPH II.—HIS DISAPPOINTMENT AND EARLY DEATH.—EMPEROR LEOPOLD II.—REACTION AGAINST REFORMS.—FRANCIS II.—RUSSIA AND ITS CONDITION.—FREDERICK WILLIAM II., THE SUCCESSOR OF THE GREAT FREDERICK.—CONGRESS OF REICHENBACH.—THE COUNTESS OF LICHTENSTEIN.—THE KING AND HIS MINISTERS.—DESPOTIC POWER OF PRUSSIAN MONARCHS.

JOSEPH II.—HIS DISPUTE WITH THE NETHERLANDS AND HUNGARY.—UNIFORM ORGANIZATION OF THE STATE.

JOSEPH'S scheme of transforming into one empire, and governing according to one constitutional form, the different nations who were subject to the Austrian sceptre, was next frustrated in Belgium and Hungary. His efforts to lessen the influence of the all-powerful clergy led to an insurrection among the students of the University of Louvain, which was scarcely repressed when the prevalent discontent was shown by a general rebellion, instigated by the clergy and nobility, and accompanied by rude popular excesses. The States of Brabant refused to pay the taxes until the reforms were cancelled; and the towns established an armed force to compel the restoration of the former conditions. As the Emperor, the ally of Russia, was at the time involved in a war with the Turks, the disconcerted government promised to yield to the demand in order to put an end to the rebellion. But Joseph refused his consent; he promised, it is true, to comply with their petitions with regard to the administration and courts of justice, but the Church reforms and the changes in the University were to be maintained. The storm now broke out anew; the aristocratic-clerical party united with the democratic party for mutual resistance, the former led by Van der Noots, and the latter by Boucks, both advocates in the sovereign's council

of Brabant. In vain did the Austrian military force endeavour to repress the insurrection; the enraged people repulsed the weak army, and the Netherland provinces declared their independence and established a Congress at Brussels (June 1790). Now, however, the unnatural alliance between the parties became severed, and the clergy, with the masses acting on their behalf, directed their anger against the Bouckists, who were threatened and ill-treated. The prisons were soon overflowing with citizens, and a system of terror and repression prevailed throughout the capital. The influence of France in these proceedings was not to be doubted, different as were the objects striven for by the two countries; for the struggle in Belgium was for the maintenance of clerical



JOSEPH II. AND HIS MINISTER KAUNITZ.

supremacy with all its abuses, against which France was at the same time directing all her efforts of repression.

"What a pity," exclaimed Camille Desmoulins at Paris, "that these priests should so spoil the Brabantine revolution." These events and similar occurrences in Hungary broke the Emperor's heart. The ill-success of his well-intentioned schemes and the misrepresentation of his noblest aspirations undermined his health and hastened his death. His last words, "that he had had the unhappiness of seeing all his schemes frustrated," showed how much his soul had been wounded by the sorrowful consciousness of a fruitless life's activity. His brother and successor, Leopold II. (1790–92), who was more amiable and yielding than Joseph, and of a less excitable temper,

restored the old Constitution in Belgium and Hungary, pacified the nobility by plausible promises, and re-established a good understanding with Prussia. Thus peace gradually returned to the Empire. With inward reluctance the Emperor consented to the withdrawal of the reforms in the Netherlands, in order to be free from the importunity of the clergy; but in spite of his compliance, he was compelled to enforce the dissolution of the Congress by force of arms (1791). But the violence which was exercised in the repression of the insurrection in Brussels, Louvain, etc., by the Austrian soldiers and officers, roused such indignation among all classes, that the French armies, which included many Dutch fugitives, were universally received with open arms, as liberators.

Leopold II. and Francis II.

LEOPOLD, as Grand Duke of Tuscany, was as zealous a reformer as his brother, though more circumspect. As Emperor he recognised the opposing principles of the time by not only again abolishing most of his brother's reforms in Church and State, but, from the fear of French revolutionary ideas, he limited the freedom of speech and of the press, and entered into an alliance with Prussia against France. His sudden death preserved him from the disastrous war into which Frederick William II. sought to force him, and which became the inheritance of his son Francis II. (1792–1835), a prince in whose character the most contradictory traits were united. Jealously apprehensive for his unlimited power, and filled with the selfish delusion that the preservation of his own person must be the most important object of the whole State, he persecuted everything which was opposed to this absolute princely power, and which appeared to endanger the safety of his person.

Prussia.

FOR six-and-forty years Frederick II. governed the Prussian State with unlimited power (1740–86), and added to his dominions Silesia, a part of Poland, and the principality of East Friesland. As an arbitrary ruler, without active ministers, favourites, or influential mistresses, he governed the State in a completely despotic manner, and introduced many needful reforms. His principal care was the material improvement of his States, and the increase of his revenues. He promoted agriculture, the cultivation of forests, and the working of mines. He also improved the army, and devoted great attention to the reform of the courts of justice, in which he abolished a host of abuses. Torture and the cruel and degrading punishments of the Middle Ages were done away with; the course of justice was simplified, and was made more expeditious; the laws underwent suitable reform; and the new book of laws introduced by his successor, Frederick William II., as the law of Prussia, was prepared during the reign of Frederick. But more important than all his ordinances and institutions, was Frederick's close attention to all matters connected with his administration. By his unwearied activity from early morning till late at night, he obtained a comprehensive insight into all the conditions of his kingdom, and his dictatorial bearing struck terror into the indolent and dishonourable.



FREDERICK WILLIAM II.

FREDERICK WILLIAM II. (1786–1798).



VERY different principles were followed in many respects by this king after his uncle's death. Many oppressive taxes were abolished, trade and husbandry met with encouragement, and commercial intercourse was facilitated by the laying out of well-made roads. But, through a preverted policy abroad, an immoral Court life, and the restriction of the spirit of freedom at home, the Prussian State lost its dignity and the independent character which Frederick had conferred upon it. The Minister Herzberg persuaded the king into an aimless alliance with the Porte, in order to prevent Austria and Russia from extending their frontiers towards Turkey, or to bring about a fresh division of the countries, in consequence of which Dantzig and Thorn would become Prussian possessions. This policy, which, for a time, appeared to make Prussia the arbiter of European

affairs, at last assumed an unfavourable turn through the uncertain and irresolute attitude of Frederick William ; the maintenance of a considerable army necessitated great expenses, through which a large portion of Frederick's savings were fruitlessly squandered away. But the moral defeat was even worse. Outwitted by Austria in the Congress of Reichenbach (July, 1790), Prussia surrendered her arbitrary position without having obtained the hoped-for extension of territory or any other advantage. The next result was the complete victory of Austria in the Netherlands and at Liége. Here the subjects had induced the Bishop to abolish some of the abuses and to introduce reforms in the Constitution. The Bishop, however, escaped, recalled all his promises, and obtained help from the Imperial Chamber. Troops were despatched to the scene, but were repulsed. In vain did Prussia now attempt to bring about a reconciliation. The influence of Treves and Cologne pre-



FREDERICK WILLIAM II. REVIEWING HIS TROOPS.

ponderated at Wetzlau, which resulted in the Austrian army from Brabant invading Liége, and restoring the old condition of the law by force of arms. This soon led to the revolt of this frontier district to France. Still less did the internal government of Frederick William II. meet with satisfaction and approval. In order to counteract the heterodox theories which, under the auspices of Frederick II., had gained an access into Prussia, as well as to repress the rationalist tendency of German literature, the king published the famous religious edict, which forbade the clergy, on pain of dismissal, to make any deviations from the doctrine of the Church, made the appointment of preachers and teachers dependent on their orthodoxy, and subjected them to strict supervision. This restriction on liberty of thought in religion excited violent opposition, which was not allayed by strict regulations.



RUSSIA AND POLAND, UNDER CATHARINE II.

INSURRECTIONS IN RUSSIA.—PUGATSCHEFF.—FIRST PARTITION OF POLAND, AND THE FIRST TURKISH WAR.—WEAKNESS OF POLAND. —STANISLAUS PONIATOWSKI.—THE FIRST DIVISION OF POLAND.— —THE CONQUEST OF THE CRIMEA.—THE SECOND PARTITION OF POLAND, AND SECOND TURKISH WAR.—THE CONSTITUTION OF POLAND.—KOSCIUSZKO, AND THE CONFEDERATES OF TARGOWICZ.— DOWNFALL OF POLAND.—CLASSICAL LITERATURE OF GERMANY.— PROGRESS AND DEVELOPMENT.—POETRY.—PROSE. —LITERATURE.

PUGATSCHEFF AND POTEMKIN.

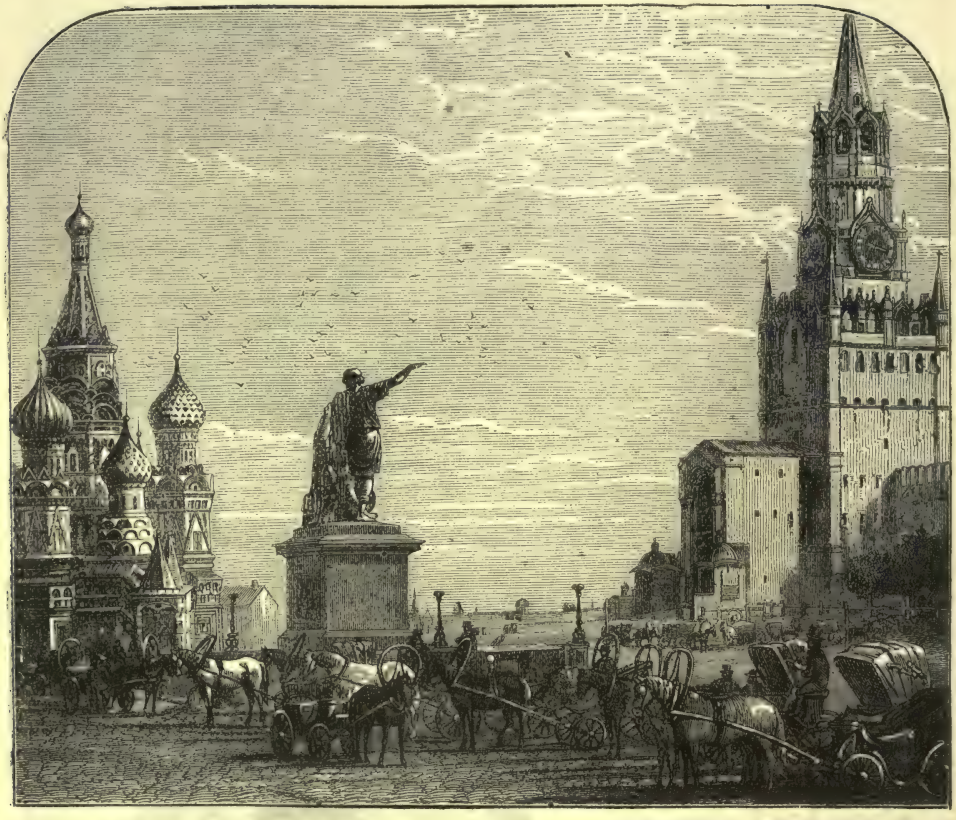
CATHARINE II. was seated on a blood-stained throne, which was not hers by right. The first attempt to dispossess her of the crown cost the unfortunate Iwan III. his life. Ten years later there rose up Pugatscheff, a Cossack, who bore some likeness to Peter III., and who declared himself to be that unfortunate prince. Supported by the clergy and the orthodox Russians, who were indignant at the changes introduced by Catharine in some Church customs, he collected large bands of Cossacks and peasant serfs, whom he promised liberation from the yoke of the lords of the soil; and with these forces he advanced into the district of the Volga (1773–75). He gained possession of the town of Kasan, caused money to be coined with the image of Peter III., and directed his course towards Moscow, where he expected to find many supporters; but the Russian commanders succeeded in driving him back across the Volga, and ultimately in taking him prisoner. Pugatscheff was at length beheaded at Moscow, in January, 1775. Catharine II.

possessed great talent for government, and a keen intellect; and, had she been less devoted to selfish enjoyment, would have been a worthy successor of Peter the Great. She was a highly cultured woman, was greatly attracted by modern French philosophy, declared herself "a Republican at heart," entered into correspondence with Voltaire and men of his way of thinking, and induced the poet and philosopher Diderot to take up his residence for a time in St. Petersburg. The appellation of "the Semiramis of the North," which the French writers conferred upon her, was fitting and appropriate. She shared all the characteristics, the majestic nature, the beauty, and the voluptuousness of the mythical queen. Many of the reforms which she projected with a liberal spirit, she found to be unsuited for the uncivilized Russian nation; among these was the introduction throughout the empire of a general book of law according to the principles of Montesquieu, a scheme, of the impracticability of which she was speedily convinced during the first deliberations held at St. Petersburg. On the other hand, the administration of justice was improved, and the business of the Government was better regulated. The Empress promoted the increase of a free citizen class by founding town communities; she alleviated the condition of the serfs, and endeavoured to civilize the country by building schools, and by educational institutions. She caused foreign books to be translated into Russian, and herself assisted in the work. She wrote books for children and dramas for her grandchildren, and founded an Academy after the model of the French establishment for the development of the Russian language. The arts and sciences found in her a liberal patroness, and she practised religious toleration to a great extent. Much, however, which was extolled as true Liberalism by Voltaire and others, was mere show and pretence, and had no more real value than the delusive creations of Potemkin on the occasion of Catharine's journey through the southern provinces, in 1787, when artificial villages were erected, and numbers of shepherds and flocks driven together from various districts, while rustic festivities were set on foot, to furnish forth a brave show, and to make the Empress believe that the country was populous and prospering.



THE EMPRESS CATHARINE II.

Catharine prevented her son Paul from taking any part in the business of the government, neglected his education, and kept him under the closest supervision; so that he could make no attempt to gain the crown, which of right belonged to him. The most enduring service rendered by



MOSCOW.

Catharine to the country she governed, was the promotion of trade, by which the newly-conquered districts were completely amalgamated with the older provinces; she also promoted the increase of industry, gave encouragement to the merchant class, and worked zealously for the improvement of the navy and shipping. With regard to the Russian court and Catharine's private life, St. Petersburg could compare, in immorality, luxury, and self-indulgence, even with Paris and Versailles. Like the mistresses who held sway over the weak and ignoble Louis XV., in Russia, favourites directed the helm of the State, and squandered the country's revenues. Among those who thus ruled the destinies of the empire none enjoyed such enduring favour from his sovereign, and used his influence so much for the satisfaction of his own ambition, as Potemkin, the Taurian. For sixteen years he controlled the affairs of the State, and during that time led a life of fabulous magnificence and splendour; and even after Catharine had taken other courtiers into her favour, this presumptuous minister still maintained his powerful position.

The First Division of Poland and the First Turkish War.—The Weakness of Poland.



URING the feeble reign of Augustus III., confusion and misrule increased in Poland to such an extent, that the continuance of the kingdom under the existing constitution appeared an impossibility. The Crown was divested of all power by the strictest law of election (*pacta conventa*); the crown lands were in the hands of the nobility, or Starosts; the higher nobility, who took on themselves the control of the army, the administration of justice, of the police, and other important departments of the State, received no commands from the king, nor did he call them to account, for indeed he regarded these posts and offices only as means for the increase of his revenues. The law of the *liberum veto*, and the law of armed confederations, made peaceful reforms impossible, and provoked passionate party conflicts, which completely upset the authority of the State. The elective Constitution had long made the nation a prey to venality, and had exposed to the eager watchfulness of neighbouring States all its deficiencies and weaknesses. The Polish kingdom was a rotten structure, which was only able to maintain its existence through the dissensions and jealousies of the adjoining States, not by its own strength and civil virtue.

Soon after the conclusion of the Peace of Hubertsburg, the death of Augustus III., in 1763, left the kingdom of Poland again a prey to the old disputes regarding the election of a monarch. Two parties were formed, one of which, headed by the Potocki family and the younger Prince Radzivil, desired to uphold the old condition of affairs, but to exclude any foreign influence in the election of a king; while the other, that of the Czartoryskis and Poniatowskis, strove for a reform in the Constitution, although this reform were obtained by means of aid from without. Russia and Prussia, animated by the hope and prospect of aggrandizing themselves at the expense of the distracted neighbouring State, entered into an alliance for the maintenance of the Polish elective Constitution, for the protection of the unreasonable malcontents, and for the elevation of the Polish Prince Stanislaus Poniatowski, a former lover of the Russian Empress, to the powerless throne of Warsaw. After a stormy conflict, Poniatowski was declared king, amid the waving of Russian sabres on the plains of Wola, in September, 1764, and his opponents were put to flight; but the new king, a weak though amiable and intellectual man, was at once forced to consent to Russia's appropriation of a tract of Polish territory.

It was about this time that the malcontents, or Dissidents, among whom were not only Protestants and Socinians, but also members of the Greek Church, demanded the restoration of their religious rights, and equality with the Catholics. Their petition was rejected through the influence of the clergy; and in conjunction with the discontented party they then established the general confederation of Radom, in July, 1767, intending, under the protection of Repnin and his Russian army, to enforce their demands by violence. The Diet then granted them free exercise of their religion, access to all offices in the State, the right of voting in the National Assembly, and the possession of the churches they had held in the year 1717.

Surrounded by Russian troops, the deputies, at the express command

of the Empress, signed the Act of Toleration, which was greeted throughout Europe with delight, but which was more significant of the feebleness of Poland than of the triumph of religious enlightenment. And that this state of feebleness might be perpetuated, the same Diet was compelled to decide on the continuance of the *liberum veto* and other disastrous laws of the old Constitution. Without the consent of Russia, which stood as the guarantee of the Polish Constitution, no decision of the Diet could in future be carried into effect. Thus Russia contrived to make a profit out of the irrational intolerance of the priests and the orthodox, in the name of religious toleration, and



THE STRELITZ GUARD.

to bring down into still deeper disrepute the power and administration of the law, giving protection for their own purposes to everything that was unsound and pernicious in the Polish government. These proceedings wounded the national feeling in Poland, and awakened the religious hatred of the Catholic zealots. The Podolian Counter-confederation of Bar (February, 1768) had for its object the repudiation of the Russian supremacy and the annulling of the rights granted to the Dissidents. Repnin now forced the Senate to request that the Empress would not withdraw her armies from Poland. A hot dispute arose between the Confederates, who were supplied with officers and money from France, and the Russians and their Polish adherents. After the storm-

ing of the fortresses of Bar and Cracow, the Confederates were driven to take refuge on Turkish territory. The Russians followed them, and continued their savage depredations even on foreign soil; in a Turkish town they murdered thousands of men, women, and children, and burnt down a Mohammedan mosque. This violence resulted in a declaration of war by the Porte against Russia, which was greeted with delight by the Polish Confederates, who availed themselves of the consternation of their opponents to wreak bloody vengeance on the opposite party (October, 1768).

The murderous war which now broke out between Russia and Turkey, was carried on at one and the same time in several places with terrible fury, and was accompanied by horrible excesses. While the brave Romanzoff conquered Moldavia and Wallachia, and the terrible storming of Bender (Sept. 26th, 1770) filled Europe with astonishment and horror, the Morea, where the Greeks, relying on Russian aid, had risen against the oppressive dominion of the Turks, was cruelly devastated by the Ottoman armies, whole tracts of country being laid desolate and left strewn with corpses. At the same time there raged a most terrible naval war. In the harbour of Tschesmé, opposite the island of Chios, the whole Turkish fleet was set on fire. The renown of the Russian arms resounded throughout Europe; the Empress was called Catharine the Great; and the Bey of Egypt renounced obedience to the Sultan and entered into alliance with Russia in 1771. But the conquered countries were converted into desolate and blood-stained deserts, while the ruins, burnt towns, and trains of wailing starving people marked the path of the Russian arms; and to heighten the calamities of the unfortunate nation, a terrible plague broke out, which carried off 90,000 men in Moscow alone.

The First Partition of Poland.



MENTSCHIKOFF.

IN the meantime Poland was overrun by bands of quarrelsome Confederates, intent only on pillage and plunder. With these Dumourier and other French officers entered into an alliance. They declared the king to have forfeited the throne, and attempted to carry him off from Warsaw; and only by a miracle did Poniatowski escape out of the hands of the conspirators. The outrages committed on the Dissidents excited the Russians to similar violence; and bloody vengeance was taken on the Catholic Poles for old grievances committed against members of the Greek Church. The Polish

kingdom was torn with dissensions, and its powerlessness invited the depredations of plunderers. Desire of aggrandizement led Prussia and Austria to follow a false and unjust policy. That Poland might not become the sole prey of the Russians, these powers determined to secure for themselves a share of the spoil; and a treaty of partition was at last arranged between Russia, Prussia, and Austria, in August, 1772, in accordance with which each of these States possessed itself of the Polish territory bordering on its own dominions. The king and the Diet at once emphatically protested against this measure; the Assembly proved that the alleged rights by which the territory was claimed had long been forfeited, and solemnly denounced before God and the whole world the injustice of the great powers that thus parcelled out the Polish kingdom among themselves. Neither threats nor promises availed to break the opposition of the Diet; even the ill-treatment and oppression of the insurrectionists, through the quartering of Russian soldiers upon them, was powerless to move the deputies, who, on this occasion, exhibited a noble patriotism. It was only the threat that further resistance would result in the whole of Poland being partitioned among foreign powers, that at last compelled the Diet to accede to the cession of territory, particularly as the hope of receiving Turkish aid had been destroyed since the Peace of Kudschuck Kainardsche, in July, 1774, which the Porte had been compelled to conclude with Russia. The remainder of the Polish kingdom continued to maintain its form of elective sovereignty, its *liberum veto*, and all the disastrous conditions of the old Constitution; and the establishment of a permanent elective Council without the consent of the king, chosen from among the nobility and acting according to the directions of Catharine's ambassadors, deprived the sovereign of the last remnant of regal power. From that time the Russian ambassador at Warsaw was the real ruler of the Republic of Poland.

The Conquest of the Crimea.

THE Empress did not long content herself with the conditions of the peace of Kudschuck Kainardsche. By means of money, promises, and intrigues, the all-powerful favourite Potemkin induced the weak-minded Khan of the Tartars to lay aside his dignity and submit voluntarily to the sceptre of the Empress. Russian armies enforced this submission. With barbarous severity the terrible Potemkin crushed the resistance of the people; and after 30,000 human begins of every age and both sexes had been murdered, the unfortunate country surrendered to its conquerors. The Khan, deceived by Potemkin with regard to his yearly stipend, was detained a prisoner in Turkey, and was punished for his foolish credulity by a violent death; the feeble Porte, unable to resist the arms of the savage conqueror, felt itself compelled to recognise the supremacy of Russia over the Crimea, Kuban, and Taman, and to consent to a disgraceful commercial treaty. The old name of Tauria was restored; colonists from Germany were summoned to the desolate steppes; the trading towns of Cherson and Odessa sprang into existence; and an outward appearance of culture dazzled the world. "But the once free and wealthy people," says a contemporary writer, "have decreased lamentably in numbers, and have degenerated into a famishing population of beggars; the once splendid tent-towns have become encampments for gipsies, and its houses, villages, and palaces built of stone, have fallen to ruins."

THE SECOND PARTITION OF POLAND.—SECOND TURKISH WAR.

RUSSIA'S ambition and presumption, the influence of the English, and the prospect of help from the King of Prussia, who was jealous of the supremacy of Russia, induced the Porte to make a fresh declaration of war against the Muscovite empire in 1787. The Emperor Joseph II. of Germany necessarily took the side of Russia, to earn a share of the expected conquests on the Danube. This time also victory declared for the Russian armies and their terrible leaders. From Trieste to the mouths of the Danube there raged a terrible war by sea and land. In the middle of the winter of 1788 Potemkin stormed the fortress of Oczakon, after the trenches were choked with bloodstained corpses. His lieutenant-general, the brave and talented Suwaroff, defeated the Turks in several bloody battles, and captured the fortress of Ismail, while Laudon, the Austrian general, conquered Belgrade. The way to Constantinople stood open to the Russians; and the name of Catharine's second grandson, Constantine, was declared to have a secret significance, indicating the intention of the Empress that a Christian prince should be established in the Byzantine capital. Potemkin, at the summit of his power, and liberally rewarded by his grateful Empress with dignities and honours, already regarded himself as prince of Moldavia and Wallachia. But partly on account of the death of Catharine's ally, Joseph II., whose successor, Leopold, purchased peace from the Porte by the surrender of Belgrade and his other conquests; partly because of the threatening attitude of England and the warlike preparations of the Poles, and partly on account of the enervation brought about through Asiatic luxury and a fabulous extravagance, the Russian Empress was induced to consent to the Peace of Jassy with Turkey, in February, 1792, in which the river Dniester was declared to be the boundary between Russia and Turkey. Potemkin did not live to see this peace. A few months before, while on a journey far from the capital, he had died in the arms of his niece, the Countess Branicka.

THE CONSTITUTION OF POLAND.—KOSCIUSZKO.

AS the Russian armies were engaged in the Turkish war and at the same time were involved in a war with Sweden, and England and Prussia had assumed a hostile attitude towards the presumptuous Muscovite empire, the moment appeared to have arrived for Poland to extricate herself from the dominating influence of Russia, and to re-assert her political independence. This was only possible if the existing Constitution, for the existence of which Russia was guarantee, could be reformed. Under the auspices of Prussia and of the Prussian minister, Herzberg, an enthusiastic zeal was awakened among the opponents of Russia, for the recasting of the Constitution and the independence and liberation of the country. In spite of the opposition of many nobles, an alliance was concluded with Prussia, who hoped to obtain the territory of Thorn and Danzig; the permanent Council was abolished; and at a stormy meeting the new Constitution was finally adopted in May, 1791. Even the king, who had

been, till then, an obedient dependant of the Russian Empress, was carried away by the enthusiasm, and favoured the movement for reform. According to the new Constitution, the pernicious elective sovereignty was to cease, Poland was to become an hereditary kingdom, and the Crown, after Poniatowski's death, was to be the inheritance of the Electors of Saxony.

The whole of Europe greeted this constitutional change with approval. Frederick William II. declared himself favourable to the scheme; and even Catharine concealed her chagrin under an appearance of acquiescence. Many nobles, however, were dissatisfied with the change. A distribution of Russian money increased the number of the discontented, and raised the spirit of opposition, and a party was formed for the preservation of "Polish liberty," as, in their self-deception, the malcontents termed the old Constitution; and this party appealed for aid to the Empress. Soon a great Russian army was despatched into the heart of Poland to give effect to the demands of the Targowicz Confederation, which had been established to bring about a restoration of the old elective Constitution. The hopes of the patriotic party for Prussian aid proved futile. Frederick William II.—whose monarchical and despotic temper and mystic religious tendency made resistance to revolutionary ideas and the restoration of the legitimate throne in France appear as the most important object for which all European princes should work together—refused all assistance, and the Elector of Saxony followed his example. Nevertheless the Poles did not despair of the triumph of their just cause. The Diet behaved with dignity; the king feigned enthusiasm, and once more swore allegiance to the Constitution, and the citizens offered to take up arms for the defence of their country. Kosciuszko, a brave soldier, who had fought for the cause of liberty under Washington in America, placed himself, with Potocki and Collontoy and others, at the head of the patriots, and made a successful stand against the Russian forces at Dubienka, in July, 1792. But party quarrels, treachery, and, above all, the want of money, paralysed the powers of the patriots; the king fell again into his former state of indecision, and at last was so intimidated by a threatening letter from Catharine, that in order to save his tottering throne, he joined the Targowicz alliance, condemned the transactions of the Diet, and forbade all hostilities against the Empress, "the restorer of Polish liberty." Filled with rage and sorrow, the brave champions of Polish freedom sheathed their swords and quitted their native land, to escape the certain contempt and the probable vengeance of their enemies; and the restoration of the old Constitution, with all its absurdities and abuses, was the result of the victory of the Targowicz confederates, and glorified the overwhelming power of Russia.

But soon the victors perceived that they were merely the instruments of foreign ambition, and that self-seeking and not love of their neighbours was the inspiring motive of their protection. In April, 1793, Prussia and Russia declared that they were compelled to enclose Poland within narrower limits, to crush the wild aspirations for freedom which had penetrated from France to the Republic, and to protect the neighbouring States from any infection from democratic Jacobinism. At the same time the Prussians occupied the western districts of Poland, and compelled Danzic to surrender. In vain did the Diet, assembled at Grodno, oppose the new treaty of partition. Russian troops surrounded the session-house, and by the threat of a declaration of war, extorted the cession of the districts coveted by Catharine—Lithuania, Lesser Poland, the remainder of Volhynia, Podolia, the Ukraine—an enormous territory with more than 3 000,000 inhabitants.

Anxious to deprive the remainder of the Polish kingdom and its powerless king of the last remnant of independence, Catharine procured the re-establishment of the permanent Council; and a new alliance was concluded with Russia, in accordance with which the Poles could undertake no change in the Constitution without the permission of the Empress, nor could they enter into a treaty with any foreign power, while the Russian troops retained the right of marching into the kingdom at any time.

The Downfall of Poland.

RELYING on the various divisions of the Russian and Prussian armies, which did not evacuate the country even after the conclusion of the treaty, Catharine's ambassador, the harsh and presumptuous Ingelström, ruled with despotic insolence at Warsaw. But the Polish national feeling was aroused once more. One last attempt was made by Kosciuszko, who was appointed commander-in-chief of the national forces, to incite the people to another struggle for the liberty and independence of their country. A victory of the insurgents over a division of the Russian forces induced the inhabitants of the capital to take part in the insurrection (1794). The Russian garrison was attacked in Warsaw, Ingelström's palace was destroyed by flames, and four of the most prominent adherents of Russia perished on the gallows. Wilna and Lithuania followed the example of the capital; the king himself declared in favour of the independence of the oppressed nation, and everything seemed to promise a successful result. The Prussians—who, after the capture of Cracow, attempted to besiege the capital Warsaw—were driven back by the brave generals Kosciuszko, Dombrowski, and Joseph Poniatowski, the king's nephew. But the successes of the Poles only increased the resentment of their enemies. In alliance with Austria and Prussia, Catharine now despatched the most ferocious of her generals, Suwaroff, with a large army to Poland, when Kosciuszko was compelled at last to yield. After an unsuccessful battle near Inacziejowicze in October, 1794, he fell wounded from his horse, crying, "Poland's end;" and after he had lain for a time unconscious on the battlefield, he was carried away a prisoner by the Russians. This disaster was followed by the storming of Praga on the fourth of November, and five days later Suwaroff made his victorious entry into Warsaw. Poniatowski received the command to abdicate the crown; and a few months later, in January, 1795, the three powers declared that they had decided, from love of peace and regard for the welfare of their subjects, to partition the whole of the Polish State among themselves.

In this division Austria obtained the territory in the south, with Cracow; Prussia, the country to the left of the Vistula, with the capital, Warsaw, and the territory as far as the Niemen, which, under the name of "New Eastern Prussia," had been united with the monarchy; it contained about a million of inhabitants. The remainder, by far the larger portion, Russia appropriated to herself as the "lion's share," at the same time that the duchy of Courland, which for two centuries had been under the supremacy of Poland, was also obliged to surrender. Russian intrigues induced the Courland Diet to agree to the union with Russia; and the last duke, Peter Biron, voluntarily resigned his position in return for a yearly payment.

The Classical Literature of Germany.—Poetry.

Progress of Poetic Development.



KLOPSTOCK.

In the second half of the eighteenth century, the literature, poetic art, science, and whole intellectual life of the German nation received a powerful impetus. Highly gifted men of the most varied intellectual endowments struck out fresh paths of mental activity, and partly through attacking ancient errors and prejudices, partly through genial creations in the region of poetry or science, established a high standard of culture. It was to the art of poetry, however, that the greatest minds in the nation devoted their talents. Klopstock (1724–1803) awakened sensibility and enthusiasm among the people by pouring into the hearts of aspiring youth his Christian faith, warmth of feeling, and patriotic sense of liberty. Lessing (1729–1781) brandished his scourge of criticism over French theatrical literature, and showed in his own dramas the way by which a true dramatic poetry may be attained, at the same time that in his "Laokoon" he opened the eyes of thoughtful men as to the nature of poetry and the creative art, the comprehension of which was simultaneously attained by Winckelmann in another way. In Lessing's track followed the imaginative, intellectual Herder (1744–1803), who went back to the origin of all language and poetry, unveiled the beauties of the Eastern poetry of nature, and the deep meaning of the artless popular songs of different nations; and in his "Ideas on the Philosophy of the History of Humanity," offered a powerful incentive for further investigations. Wieland (1733–1813), the cheerful philosopher of life, extolled in his romances ("Agathon"), which had their origin principally in old Greek life with modern colouring, the philosophy and mental tendency of the higher, cultured classes in France, and preached in light and lively language a wise enjoyment of life, while at the same time in his "Oberon," an epic in the spirit, and after the form of Ariosto, he revived with the breath of cheerful irony the romantic heroic poetry of the Middle Ages. By these three men, German prose underwent an entire transformation. Lessing gave it strength, incisiveness, and clearness; Herder, inspiration and wealth of imagery; Wieland, lightness and charm. On the soil which they had cultivated, the greatest genius of the century, Goethe (1749–1832), planted his creations, in which are reflected both the intellectual life of the nation and his own mental development. In the "storm" period of the seventy years, when impetuous and aspiring youth set all rules of art and conventionality at defiance, and venerated only the productions of genius, "The Sorrows of Werther," and "Götz von Berlichingen," excited a storm of enthusiasm; when Lessing and Winckelmann had awakened

the interest for ancient art in Germany, there appeared at the appointed hour the classic dramas of "Tasso" and "Iphigenia," inspired by the personal impressions and sentiments which Goethe had imbibed on his journey to Italy, and which are also portrayed in the unsurpassed popular scenes in the tragedy of "Egmont." The idyllic epic "Hermann and Dorothea" originated in the mighty political events of the time, and in the trials of the emigrants; the romance "Wilhelm Meister," and the novel "Die Wahlverwandtschaften," show the influence of romantic poetry, with its love for the marvellous, mysterious, and fabulous; in "Dichtung und Wahrheit," Goethe describes the story of his own life, and the circumstances which contributed to his mental development; and in the mighty dramatic poem of "Faust," over which we learn he was engaged throughout the whole of his life, he bequeathed to posterity a representation of the state of his innermost soul. In the meantime,



GOETHE.



SCHILLER.

while the political world had assumed an overpowering form, and the attention of the nations was turned to history and government, Schiller (1759–1805) came forth with his historical dramas, and, with his enthusiasm for liberty, his fatherland, and the happiness of mankind, found the string which vibrated most deeply in the hearts of the people. His first three tragedies, "Die Räuber," "Kabale und Liebe," and "Fiesco," belong to the stormy period of youth; and with the drama of "Don Carlos," a new and more enlightened period sets in. During his residence at Jena, as professor of history, he was occupied with "The Thirty Years' War," "The Revolt of the Netherlands," and the drama of "Wallenstein," and during the last years of his life he wrote "Maria Stuart," "Die Jungfrau von Orleans," "Die Braut von Messina," and the noble drama "Wilhelm Tell." The integrity of his sentiments and the truth of his aspirations won him the friendship of Goethe, different as were the natures of the two men; and their combined activity forms the great

climax of German poetry; for through their intercourse the eternal contradictions of idealism and realism, subjectivity and objectivity were brought into harmony with each other.

Prose Literature.

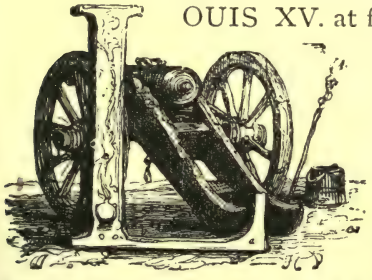
Scientific Activity.—Not only the art of poetry, but theology, philosophy, history, the subject of education, in short, the whole intellectual life, underwent at this same period a mighty transformation. Protestant preachers investigated the Bible, and represented Christian doctrine according to the particular tendency of their own minds. Some, like the Zurich preacher Lavater (1741–1801), sought by their pious effusions to keep the world in strict orthodoxy, and to establish the conviction that man, by means of prayer, stands in immediate relationship with God; others, like the bookseller and author Nicolai (1733–1811), desired that human reason alone should be regarded as supreme in Divine matters, and declared everything which ran counter to it to be superstition. The former were called Supernaturalists, the latter Rationalists, or free-thinkers. A third party, to which Hamaun, the philosopher, Fr. H. Jacobi (1743–1819), and the poet Fr. Count of Stolberg (1759–1819) belonged, made religion a matter of feeling, like the mystics in the middle ages. Lavater was also the creator of the "Study of the Physiognomy," that doubtful science which teaches that the character and the predominant qualities of men may be recognised by the development of their heads and their features. In philosophy, the great thinker Kant, of Königsberg (1724–1804), established a system of thought which quickly penetrated all other sciences, and powerfully moved and influenced the intellectual world of Germany; his great pupil, Fichte (1762–1814), passed from criticism of the Kant philosophy to pure idealism. As the bold champion of popular liberty, in his "Address to the German nation," delivered at Berlin, Fichte's name is held in veneration throughout Germany. His disciple, Fr. W. J. Schelling (1775–1854), combined this idealism with natural philosophy, and George Fr. W. Hegel (1770–1831) created by his dialectic philosophy, a system of thought which had the greatest influence on the whole intellectual life of his time. In historical writing, which received a new impulse from Herder's "ideas," both Spittler (1752–1810) and Johann Müller (1752–1809) founded a new period; and, as writers of educational works and books for the young, Basedow, Campe, and Salzmann may be mentioned.



FRANCE ON THE EVE OF REVOLUTION.

LOUIS XV. AND HIS COURT. — HIS GOVERNMENT. — CONFUSION. — CHOISEUL. — TAXATION AND OPPRESSION. — DEFICIT. — QUARRELS WITH THE PARLIAMENTS. — LETTRES DE CACHET. — LOUIS XVI. 1774–1793. — CHARACTER OF THE KING. — QUEEN MARIE ANTOINETTE. — ATTEMPTED REFORMS OF MALESHERBES AND TURGOT. — CRITICAL FINANCIAL CONDITION. — LOMÉNIE DE BRIENNE. — SUMMONING OF THE ETATS GÉNÉRAUX. — MIRABEAU. — THE CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY, MAY, 1789 TO SEPTEMBER, 1791. — NATIONAL REPRESENTATIVES. — ROYAL SITTINGS. — THE TENNIS-COURT OATH. — STORMING OF THE BASTILLE. — THE TRICOLOR.

THE LAST PERIOD OF ABSOLUTE ROYAL POWER. — DEATH OF LOUIS XV. — COURT LIFE.



LOUIS XV. at first possessed the love of his people to such a degree that he was called the Well-beloved; and when, early in his reign, he was attacked by a dangerous illness at Metz, the whole country gave way to mourning, and his recovery was celebrated with the greatest rejoicing. But this affection gradually changed to hatred and contempt, when the king gave himself up to the most shameless debauchery, and surrendered the government of his country and the control of his armies to the companions of his revelries, while his mistresses ruled the court and spread confusion throughout the kingdom without shame or decency. Among the court favourites none exercised a greater or more lasting influence than the Marquise de Pompadour, who died in 1764.

This woman for twenty years directed the whole State-life of France, appointed her favourites to the most important offices, conferred the first place in the ministry on her friend Choiseul, concluded treaties and declared war; and so controlled the State exchequer, as well as her own finances, that, after living in luxury and extravagance, she left behind her at her death a fortune of several millions. She nevertheless used her position and influence with dignity, tact, and judgment; but when she was superseded by the Countess Du Barry, a woman who had sprung from the lowest class, the French court lost all authority and respect in the eyes of Europe. Choiseul was dismissed to make way for a flatterer of the new mistress; the former warlike renown was destroyed, and the country's political importance fell to such a low ebb, that Poland, France's old ally, was partitioned with impunity, and France could not interfere. It was a reign of voluptuousness and shameless extravagance, under which the State revenues were recklessly squandered, while the people languished under the greatest oppression, and were excluded from all participation in the government. From want of class representation, the nation was without the organization by which to carry out necessary reforms; and the cultivated and enlightened citizen classes had no means of enforcing their just rights. In vain, therefore, did the Government punish with imprisonment and banishment those bold and ingenious writers who protested against this state of things; that which these men asserted was thought and felt by the whole nation to be true. The splendour of the Crown and the majesty of the sovereign were gone for ever; and the nation longed to see the end of the wretched oppression and wrong taxation.

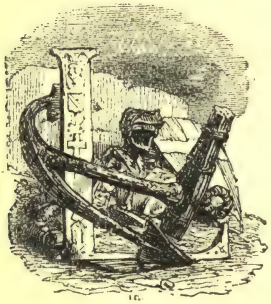
Taxation.

THE luxury of the court, the extravagant pensions, and the costly, useless wars had exhausted the exchequer and increased the burden of debt. Taxes and loans were the only means of covering the deficit, which increased with every year; but both were oppressive for the country. As the Government had forfeited alike confidence and credit, loans were only granted for high and constantly increasing interest; and with regard to taxes and imposts, though the sums obtained by this means were far below the amount annually levied by the taxation of our own times, the fact of their being collected by the farmers-general and their bloodthirsty and rapacious officials, as well as their being drawn from the citizen and peasant classes—for the wealthy aristocracy and the priests enjoyed immunity from taxation—made them extremely oppressive to the lower orders and the nation generally. The land and property tax, poll-tax, house-tax, the gabelle, or impost on salt, and numerous other exactions, took from the common man the fruits of his industry, and prevented the growth of a prosperous citizen-class, while the farmers-general, to whom the Government made over all the taxes for a fixed sum, made such profits that their enormous wealth became proverbial.

Quarrels with the Parliaments. There existed at this time a custom rendering it obligatory to register all edicts of taxation and laws in the supreme court of justice, or Parliament, in Paris. It followed, therefore, that in the absence of the Estates General of the realm, which had not been summoned since 1614, the validity of imposts and taxes depended on the confirmation of the Parliament, which thus possessed the right of opposing laws and decrees by a refusal to register. This gave rise, at every fresh tax, to such a violent dispute between the court of Parliament and the Government, that the

king held a personal council, or *lit de justice*, and broke down the opposition; for Louis XV. was not willing to diminish the royal prerogative as it had been exercised by his predecessors. Besides the edicts of taxation, the arbitrary *lettres de cachet*, or warrants for imprisonment, which were encroachments on the privileges of Parliament, were an object of contention between the courts of justice and the Government. These terrible sealed letters, which could easily be procured, not only by ministers, but also by sub-officials, bishops, fathers of families, and people in authority, or favourites, were a despotic interference with personal liberty, as by this means any one might be imprisoned and kept in durance indefinitely without a trial. For ten years the Paris Parliament carried on a struggle with the court and the Government, more, however, for the sake of its own privileges than for popular freedom. At last the king, weary of its obstinate resistance, caused the most refractory of its members to be arrested, and curtailed its power and privileges (1771). When Louis XVI., soon after his accession to the throne, allowed himself to be persuaded by his weak adviser, Maurepas, to give back to the Parliament its old power and constitution, and thus to provoke the struggle anew, the first false step was taken by the unfortunate sovereign.

Louis XVI. (1774–1793).—The Court.



LOUIS XV. was at last carried off by a terrible disease at a time when the exchequer was exhausted, and when the kingdom was burdened with a debt of four thousand millions. Credit was gone, and the people were oppressed with heavy taxes. Under these unfortunate circumstances, a prince ascended the throne who certainly possessed the kindest of hearts, but who had a weak head and no firmness of will. Louis was generous enough to desire to remove existing evils; but he had neither sufficient strength of character to restrain the extravagance and frivolity of his brothers, the Comte de Provence (afterwards Louis XVIII.) and the Comte d'Artois (afterwards Charles X.), nor sufficient independence to resist the reactionary and baleful influence of his wife, Marie Antoinette, the highly accomplished daughter of the Empress-queen Maria Theresa. The high-spirited young queen was wedded to the aristocratic splendour and to the system of the old court. By her proud demeanour she drew down on herself the dislike of the populace, so that the people were only too inclined to place an evil construction on the liberties which she allowed herself in private life, innocent as her proceedings might be. Her enemies, and in particular the Duke of Orleans, busied themselves with spreading abroad odious calumnies and disseminating caricatures, which were calculated to destroy, in the hearts of the people, the last remnants of respect towards the queen and the whole court. The terrible calamity that occurred in Paris at the celebration of her marriage festivities, in May, 1770, when, during a display of fireworks, several hundred people were crushed to death and trodden under foot in the throng, was an occurrence of fatal omen.

Soon after his accession to the throne, Louis XVI., in 1776, summoned two men into the ministry who had both the inclination and the power to introduce thorough reforms in the administration and to give renewed stability to the tottering throne. These men were Turgot and Malesherbes. They brought about an entire transformation in the government. They suggested

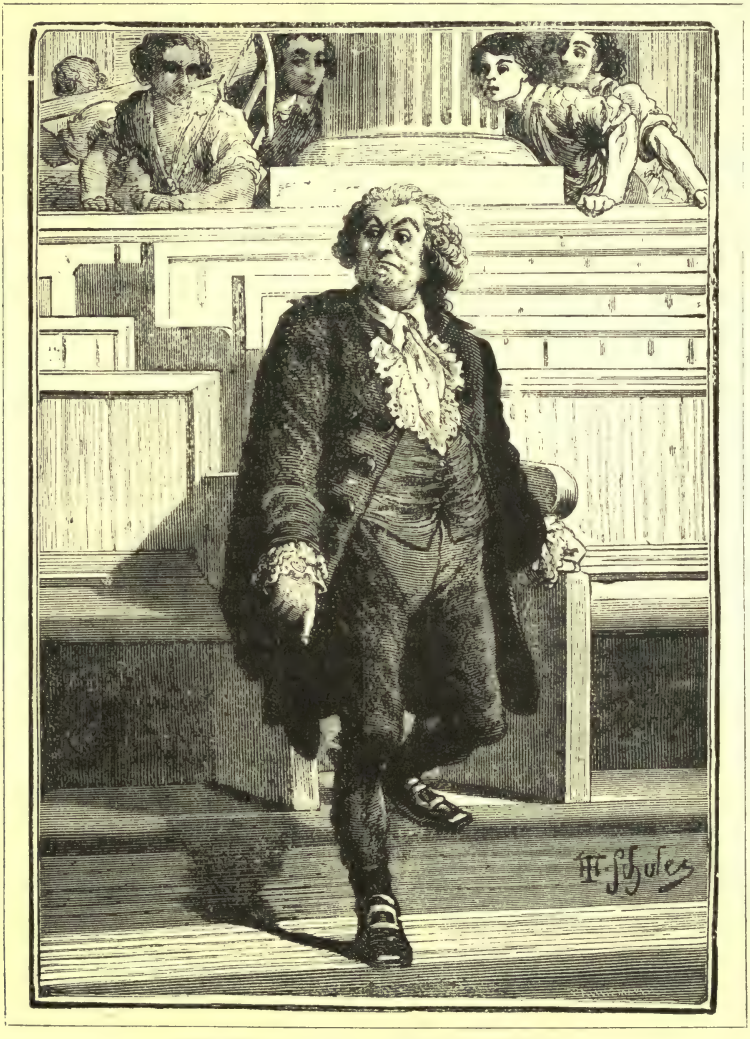
many reforms in the administration, urged the admission of citizens to the higher offices in the State and to judicial posts, the abolition of the secret police, economy in the expenditure, and other beneficial innovations. In a similar manner the minister of war, St. Germain, sought to abolish the abuses prevailing in the army. These proposals met with such violent opposition, partly from the court and nobility—with the exception of the king—partly from Parliament, and especially from the clergy, that the ministers were compelled to resign.

The state of affairs was not improved under the administration of the banker Necker, who undertook the department of finance, after Turgot, which he occupied from 1777 to 1781. While as a citizen and a Protestant his position was a difficult one from the beginning, the means by which he sought to remedy the disastrous state of the administration made him detested by the court and aristocracy; and the revelation of the financial condition of the nation he made on the occasion of a loan, by his "comptes rendus," excited such dissatisfaction that he was compelled to apply for his dismissal. His resignation freed the court from an irksome system of economy; but the financial confusion increased when the frivolous and extravagant Calonne took office in 1783. The new minister's proposal for the general taxation of all classes, including the clergy and the nobility, was steadfastly resisted by the Assembly of Notables; and when the amount of the deficit was discovered, the storm became so violent that Calonne renounced his post, and went to London to escape the impeachment with which he was threatened. His most zealous opponent in the Assembly of Notables, Loménie de Brienne, Archbishop of Toulouse, became his successor, and held office in 1787 and 1788. Brienne had a difficult position to fill. His proposals for taxation met with such violent opposition from Parliament, that the king had recourse to his accustomed means of compulsion, the *lit de justice*, and when this was of no avail, banished the boldest councillors to Troyes. The greatest interest was exhibited by the people in the struggle; they surrounded the session-house and greeted the Opposition speakers with acclamation, and the Government party with yells of contumely. There was a general clamour for an assembly of the Estates General; further imprisonments took place, and the discontent of the people was shown by insurrections and wild excesses in Provence, Languedoc, Dauphiné, and especially in Brittany, and by the burning of the minister in effigy.

Summoning of the Estates General.

THE constantly increasing storm against the minister at last compelled the court to agree to Brienne's dismissal (August, 1788), at a time when the need for money was so great that all cash payments had to be suspended, and a State bankruptcy appeared inevitable. The post of finance minister was now once more entrusted to the popular Necker, in 1788. That financial reformer at once proceeded to liberate the imprisoned councillors, to withdraw the edicts against the Parliament, and to introduce necessary regulations. Parliament now very soon showed that it only did homage to the spirit of progress in so far as the innovations did not endanger its own interests; for it was of opinion, as were also the Notables, who were again consulted, that the new Assembly should be modelled on the old lines of 1614, with regard to the number of deputies and the management of affairs; whereas Necker wished to assign a double number of members to the citizens,

or *tiers état*, and to have the votes taken according to heads, or individually, and not one only for each estate. A number of clever pamphlets were written and published to support this view. Among these none made a greater impression than the pamphlet of Abbé Siéyes, "What is the Third Estate?" Though himself at once a noble and a priest, he attacked the clergy and nobility alike, and asserted the leading principle of the Revolution, that "the

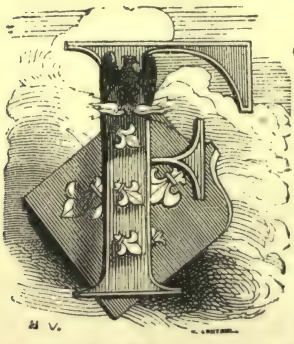


MIRABEAU IN THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

third estate is the nation, the nation in its true sovereignty and supremacy." A royal decree fixed the number of the noble and ecclesiastical members at three hundred, and that of the representatives of the citizens at six hundred, and appointed the first of May of the following year as the time for opening the session. Too late did the unpopular Parliament repent of its contumacy, and seek by compliance with public opinion to regain its former position; the popular favour had been trifled with, and the splendour which shone round

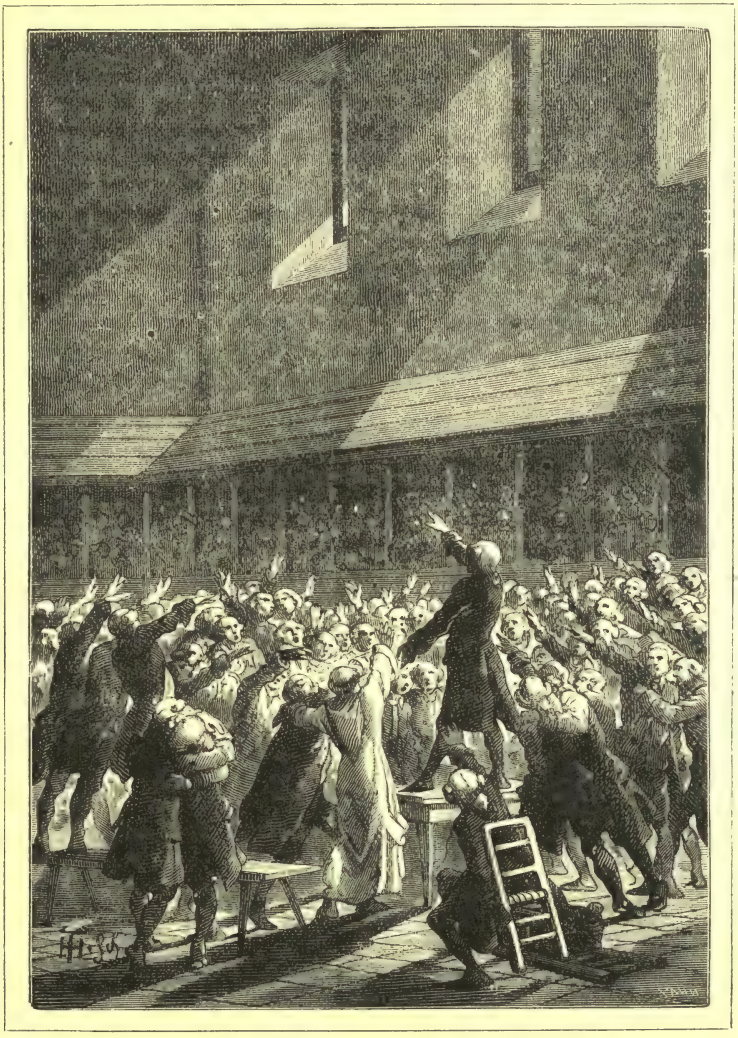
the new assembly threw the Parliament so completely into the shade, that its subsequent dissolution took place almost unnoticed. Necker was the hero of the day; but he was not the guide of the ship of the State, and "only drifted before the wind." Without plan or preparation, the short-sighted representative of the Government came forward to do battle with the representatives of the people, who were filled with the boldest and most diverse theories. By a faulty system of election, the ownership of land was insufficiently represented in the new assembly, and many ill-digested schemes of reform, such as the abolition of absolute royalty and of feudal conditions, improvement in the administration of justice, and the lessening of the power and wealth of the hierarchy, were brought forward in the chamber. "Throughout France but one idea prevailed, that a new era had now commenced for the people and the kingdom, and that, whatever obstacles were placed in its way, it must complete itself." The most eloquent exponent of this theory was Honoré Gabriel Victor Riquetti, Comte de Mirabeau, born in Provence, March 9, 1749,—a highly gifted man, who, in his youth, underwent much unkind treatment from an irascible and tyrannical father, by whom he was even imprisoned for a time in the prison of Vincennes. He subsequently visited England and Germany, and took up his residence for some time at Berlin. A remarkable work on the Prussian Monarchy was the fruit of his immediate observations. By this and other political writings, the name of the Comte de Mirabeau had already obtained a wide notoriety, when the Revolution summoned him to a larger field of action. "Now is my time," cried the man, who in the prison of Vincennes had learnt to know what absolutism meant in its severest form. Rejected by the nobility, he came forward as a candidate for the third estate, and became the most eager opponent of the privileged classes and of absolute monarchy.

THE CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY, 5TH MAY, 1789, TO 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1791.



FOR the beginning of May the deputies of the three estates, among them the most talented and gifted men in France, had been summoned; and they accordingly assembled at Versailles. Even in costume—for the nobles wore black velvet mantles embroidered with gold, and hats with feathers, while the citizens wore plain black stuff mantles and hats—the representatives of the third estate felt themselves insulted and undervalued; and that this was the case became more evident when the proceedings commenced. They gained, however, in importance even after the ceremony of opening. At the first sittings they came into collision with the two higher estates and the Government regarding the verification of the elective powers, as the two higher estates demanded that the verification should be carried on separately, while the citizens insisted that it should be done in common. As this would involve as the consequence that the three estates would deliberate together and the votes would be taken according to heads, in which case the nobility and clergy would be placed at a disadvantage, this dispute was obstinately prolonged for several weeks, until, by a bold and important step, it was decided in favour of the third estate. The citizen deputies—who had chosen the astronomer Bailly, the noble

patriotic, and enthusiastic deputy for Paris, as their president, but were guided by the superior talents of Siéyes and Mirabeau—declared themselves a national assembly, and invited the other estates to join them ; when a part of the lower clergy made common cause with the citizen class, while the other persisted in their resistance. The decisions arrived at by the National Assembly after this important step,—that they would not separate until they had



THE TENNIS-COURT OATH.

restored to the nation its former rights, and in the meantime would take precautions that the existing taxes, unjust though they might be, should still be levied, and the interest of the national debt be paid, so long as the Estates were not dissolved on any pretext whatever, were wisely calculated to terrify the court and to interest the nation, especially the government creditors, in the maintenance of the assembly.

These proceedings created uneasiness among the court party, and at last

gave rise to the idea that it would be advisable to confer a new Constitution on the nation, and thus make the Estates of the Kingdom unnecessary. With this object a royal sitting was fixed for the 23rd of June, and in the meantime the assembly-hall was closed, in order to make the necessary preparations. When Bailly, who had only just heard of the scheme, appeared therefore with all the deputies, he was refused entrance, whereupon they repaired to the empty hall of the Tennis Court, accompanied by an immense crowd of people, and there raised their hands in a solemn oath, that they would not separate until they had given the country a new Constitution. This was the celebrated tennis-court oath (serment du jeu de paume) of June 20th, 1789. At their next meeting, most of the clergy, with several bishops at their head, joined the citizens. On the 23rd of June the solemn sitting took place. The declaration of the king, which was filled with threats and reproaches, excited the greater indignation, as the absence of Necker, by whom the first draft had been originated, seemed to indicate that he did not approve of the subsequent changes; for which reason the projected State reform was very coldly received. The assurance that no one should be disturbed in the enjoyment of his property gave offence, as the privileged classes engrossed for themselves, as their exclusive property, all those rights which it was the object of the third estate to abolish. When the sitting was ended, the king called on the assembly to separate. The nobility and clergy obeyed; but the deputies of the third estate remained sitting unmoved; and when they were requested to withdraw by the master of the ceremonies, Mirabeau, after having reminded the assembly of its oath, and admonished it to resistance, cried out: "Tell your master that we are here by the will of the nation, and that we are only to be driven forth at the point of the bayonet." The good-natured king did not venture to meet this determined opposition with forcible measures. The assembly declared itself inviolable, and soon a number of the higher clergy, among them Talleyrand Perigord, Bishop of Autun, and Henry Grégoire, afterwards Bishop of Blois, and many of the nobility, with the profligate and ambitious Duke of Orleans at their head, joined the citizens, so that Louis himself now advised a compromise and union among the different estates.



TALLEYRAND.



FRENCH INFANTRY SOLDIERS OF 1789.

THIS victory of the third estate, and still more the turbulent agitation in the capital, terrified the aristocratic Court party, and led the advisers of the king to form a scheme for delivering themselves, by a master-stroke, from the threatening danger. As the guards, who sympathized with the popular cause, were not to be trusted, the king was persuaded to summon some Swiss and German troops, under the command of Marshal Broglie, to Versailles, in spite of the opposition of the National Assembly. By means of these troops it was intended to overawe the discontent of the capital. In the meantime a democratic association had been formed in Paris. The mainspring of the activity of this association was hatred of the upper classes; and by means of revolutionary publications and violent discourses, the lower orders were kept in a continual state of agitation. In the Palais Royal, the residence of the Duke of Orleans, and in public places and cafés, crowds of idle and daring men listened eagerly to the exciting discourses of the highly-gifted and enthusiastic young advocate, Camille Desmoulins, and other demagogues, on popular liberty, rights of man, and the equality of all classes. It was at this time that the basis was laid of the national guard, the germ of which was composed of a regiment of the guard which had revolted.

The intelligence of the calling together of the troops—which was represented by the secret agitators of Mirabeau and Orleans as a public proof of an intended arbitrary interference with the National Assembly—had already roused the people to great excitement, when suddenly the news flew through Paris and France on the 12th of July, that Necker had been dismissed

and banished from the country, and that Foulon, a favourite of the queen and of the hated Comte d'Artois, was to take his place. This was regarded as the first step towards despotic measures, and was the signal for a formidable rising. Rude mobs paraded the streets, decorated with the newly-invented national cockade; the alarm bells were sounded, workshops and arsenals were plundered, and tumult and confusion prevailed everywhere. On the 14th of July, after the people had carried off from the Hôtel des Invalides thirty thousand muskets and some cannon, the storming of the Bastille took place. The destruction of this stronghold was not only intended to secure the capital against a possible attack, but also to commemorate the end of despotism and of the *lettres de cachet*, the victory of the new age over mediæval feudal conditions, and the sovereignty of the people over the monarchy by the grace of God. The governor of the Bastille, Delaunay, and seven men of the garrison fell victims to the popular wrath. Their heads were carried on pikes through the streets, amid wild cries of delight; and the populace proved, by the murder of several men who were known as aristocrats, such as the burgomaster Flesselles, that law and authority were powerless, and that the supreme power was already in their hands. Even the leaders of the rebels, the retired officer Hélie, and the bold Swiss Hulin, who desired to take the prisoners to the council-house to be tried, could scarcely escape with their own lives from the anger of the raging mob. The banished Necker was now recalled; his journey through the towns and villages of France resembled the triumphal progress of a victorious hero; and Besenval, the hated captain of the Swiss guard, who had promised help to the commander of the Bastille, and thus encouraged him to resistance, was saved from death by his intercession. Terrified by these displays of hostile popular feeling, and angry that the king could not be persuaded to repress the agitation by bloodshed and civil war, Artois, Condé, the Polignacs, and other nobles who were hated as aristocrats, quitted their native land and gave the signal for that eventful emigration, by which ancient royalist France, with all its corruption, extravagance, and impecuniosity, became represented by "foreign refugees." The appointment of Lafayette as leader of the national guard, the elevation of Bailly to the mayoralty of the capital, and the journey of the king to Paris, when he showed himself to the people with a cockade in his hat on the balcony of the Hotel de Ville, and thus expressed his approval of what had occurred, formed the climax of this event, which was the death knell of absolute royal power, and constituted the first great victory of the new era. From that time prescriptive law and order were at an end, and violence and innovation prevailed in the capital as well as in the provinces. Foulon and his son-in-law, Berthier de Sauvigny, fell victims to the angry mob. The country people set fire to the castles of the landed proprietors, and ceased to pay deference to the aristocracy and the Church.

The Tricolor.—When Camille Desmoulins was describing to the assembled multitude in the Palais Royal the dangers which menaced the people through the summoning of foreign troops to the capital, he plucked a leaf from a tree, stuck it in his hat, and admonished the crowd to do the same, that patriots might have a sign by which to recognise each other. Soon all the trees in the Palais Royal were stripped of their leaves, which were eagerly adopted as emblems by the audience. As green, however, was the colour of the hated Artois, the people adopted the colours of the city of Paris, blue and red; and subsequently, at Lafayette's suggestion, added white, the colour of the Bourbons, to show the unity of the nation and of royalty. Thus originated the memorable tricolor.



NEW AMSTERDAM.

ENGLAND AND AMERICA.

COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA.—RALEIGH.—LORD BALTIMORE.—THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES FOUNDED.—"NEW NETHERLANDS."—PHILADELPHIA.—CAUSES OF THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.—TAXATION OF THE COLONIES.—DISCONTENTS AND RESISTANCE.—EVENTS OF THE WAR.—LEXINGTON.—BUNKER'S HILL.—WASHINGTON.—SURRENDER AT SARATOGA.—YORKTOWN.—THE ARMED NEUTRALITY.—GIBRALTAR.—TREATIES.

THE NORTH AMERICAN STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM.—INTRODUCTION.



B. FRANKLIN.

SINCE the days when the first settlement of English was founded in Virginia by Sir Walter Raleigh, in the reign of Elizabeth, until the time when the Quaker, William Penn, sought protection in Pennsylvania from the religious persecutions of the old country, numerous colonies had sprung up in North America, so that in the first half of the 18th century the English colonies consisted of the following thirteen States: 1. Massachusetts, with the capital, Boston; 2. Connecticut; 3. Rhode Island; 4. New Hampshire, with Concord (these four together formed New England); 5. New Jersey; 6. Maryland; 7. New York, with Albany; 8. Pennsylvania, with Philadelphia; 9. Delaware; 10. Virginia, with the present Washington; 11 and 12. North and South Carolina; 13. Georgia.

The first colony, planted by the celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh, was on Roanoke Island, in 1585; and not long afterwards a second settlement was made in Virginia, and the "City of Raleigh" was established on the site of the former colony. The colony of Roanoke was not long-lived, however, and a century passed away before any permanent colonization had been effected by the English. In the reign of James I. the territory of Virginia was divided into two portions, and placed in the hands of the London and Plymouth companies. The settlement of Maryland was formed in 1629, when George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, came to seek refuge in Virginia from the Catholic persecutions in England, and received from the king the grant of a tract of territory to the north of the Potomac, which obtained the



EMIGRATION OF EVANGELICAL PROTESTANTS.

name of Maryland. The Catholic emigrants now enjoyed religious toleration until they were temporarily dispossessed by a large body of Puritan settlers; but in 1715 the fourth Lord Baltimore recovered the government of the country.

In 1620 the *Mayflower* arrived in the harbour of Cape Cod, with a small band of pilgrims who had made their escape from the persecutions of the mother-country. The new settlers proceeded to found the colony of Plymouth amid many hardships and privations brought upon them by the severity of the climate and inadequate harvests. The Plymouth colony remained independent until 1692, when it was incorporated with Massachusetts Bay. The stream of Puritan emigration still continued to flow, and a number of smaller settlements came into existence, in which the chief power was placed in the

hands of a governor chosen by the people themselves. In 1643 the settlements of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, New Haven, and Connecticut were united under the title of *The United Colonies of New England.*

The settlement of Connecticut was formed by colonists from Massachusetts, under the guidance of John Steele, who established the foundation of Hartford, and of the clergyman Thomas Hooker. A liberal charter was granted by Charles I.; but after the lapse of several years the liberties of the people were subverted by a high-handed proceeding on the part of governor Andros, who marched from Boston to Hartford, entered the assembly-house, and demanded the immediate surrender of the charter. During the altercation the lights were put out, and the charter was seized by a man named William Wadsworth, who escaped and hid it in the hollow of a tree, afterwards known as the *Charter Oak.* The governor then instituted a most despotic form of government, until he was finally deposed, and the rights and liberties of the people were again restored to them.

The settlement of New York was a Dutch colony, and was originally founded in 1609 by Henry Hudson, the English navigator, who gave his name to the noble river on which stands the great cosmopolitan city of New York. The wild, uncultivated tract of country was speedily reclaimed and civilized by a diligent band of emigrants; fresh colonists were drafted off from the mother-country, and the new settlement was entitled by Holland, "New Netherlands." The first governor was Peter Minuits (1626), who founded the city of New Amsterdam, afterwards New York; but his term of office was disturbed by quarrels between the Dutch and the foreign settlers. A more prosperous period began under Governor Stuyvesant. He acted as a peacemaker between the quarrelsome tribes, encouraged Dutch industry, and favoured the settlement of foreigners within the prosperous colony. In 1664 the city lost its independence; an English fleet sailed into the harbour of New York, and demanded the surrender of the town, which was finally effected with but little attempt at resistance. The English now remained masters of New York, with the exception of a temporary re-assertion of their authority on the part of the Dutch. The next governor, Andros, proved a tyrannical ruler; many restrictions were imposed on the people's liberties, and the colony was finally annexed to New England.

The settlement of Pennsylvania, founded by the English Quaker, William Penn, was a model community of civil and religious freedom. The people alone possessed the power of making laws and imposing taxation; and perfect toleration was enjoyed by every religious sect.

The town of Philadelphia, on the Delaware, was founded in 1683.

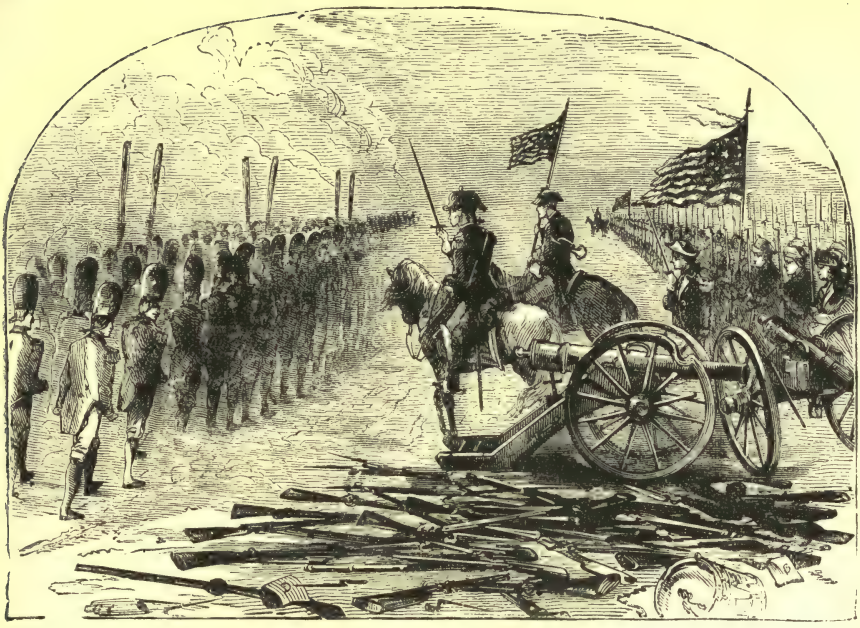
The territory of North and South Carolina was apportioned in 1663 by Charles II., of England, to several of his courtiers. The growth of the new settlement was rapid. Thither flocked Huguenot refugees, Dutch reformers, and English emigrants, who speedily raised the prosperity of the country. The cultivation of the rice plant, and of the olive and mulberry which were introduced from France, also tended to the increase of industry, and added greatly to the wealth of the new territory.

The settlement of Georgia was founded by James Oglethorpe in the reign of George II. This colony also was an asylum for the oppressed and the persecuted of all countries, and was for a time the home of John and Charles Wesley, who came over full of eager zeal for the conversion of the Indian tribes. The city of Savannah was founded in 1733.

The wars of the European continent, and especially those between France

and England, usually led to corresponding wars in the colonies. In these struggles the French and English colonists were generally pitted against each other in their efforts to obtain the supremacy in the colony; and the Indians usually espoused the cause of the French. Thus, in the Spanish War of Succession the Americans were drawn into the contest, which ended in the cession of Acadia by the French to the English in the Peace of Utrecht. Subsequently a war arose between England and France in consequence of the French claim to the Mississippi territory. This war was terminated by the Treaty of Paris, and further increased the power of the English in North America, as they gained Canada from the French and Florida from Spain in 1763.

Causes of the War.—The extension of the colonial territory in the Peace of Paris had only been obtained by England with great efforts and an increase of its burden of debt. This deficiency it endeavoured to meet by imposing taxes on imported goods in the colonies, notwithstanding that these encroachments were regarded with great disfavour by the Americans, who felt that it was principally through the assistance they had rendered that England had come forth victoriously from her conflicts. When, therefore, their discontent was still further increased by the introduction of the Stamp Act (March 1765), an important agitation soon made itself felt. The Americans declared that a Parliament in which they were not represented should not impose taxes upon them. Their grievances met with sympathy among a large portion of the English nation; and a strong Opposition, with the great orator and statesman William Pitt, Lord Chatham, at its head, attacked in both houses of Parliament the measures of the Government against the colonists. This state of affairs soon led to a change of ministry and the withdrawal of the Stamp Act (1766). As, however, the right of taxation in the colonies was expressly reserved to Parliament in a supplementary bill, and in the following year a small tax was laid on tea, glass, paper, and painters' colours, the spirit of resistance increased. The merchants of Boston determined to admit none of the taxed articles, and their example was soon followed by the other provinces; which so sensibly injured English trade that public opinion in England demanded the withdrawal of this bill also, after the open resistance to the taxing officers in Boston had compelled the Government to place troops in the town. The right of taxation was however still upheld, though the English Government endeavoured to make it bear as leniently as possible upon the Americans. But to such a point had the feeling of bitterness increased against the whole system of taxes, that at Boston a number of men dressed as savages threw three shiploads of tea into the sea. This was followed by the passing of three acts of Parliament: by one, the harbour of Boston was closed; by the second, the free constitution of Massachusetts was greatly limited; and by a third, the frontier of Canada was extended towards the United States, and thus the absolute government prevailing in the former extended also over the adjoining territory. During these events considerable excitement and great conflict of opinion prevailed in England with regard to the measures of the Government; and this agitation was still further increased in the period from the year 1769 to 1772 by the publication of the famous "Letters of Junius," pamphlets remarkable for vigour of language and beauty of style, as well as for powerful invective, The author of these letters has, up to the present day, never been identified with certainty. The English democrat, Thomas Paine, also wrote in the interests of the Americans.



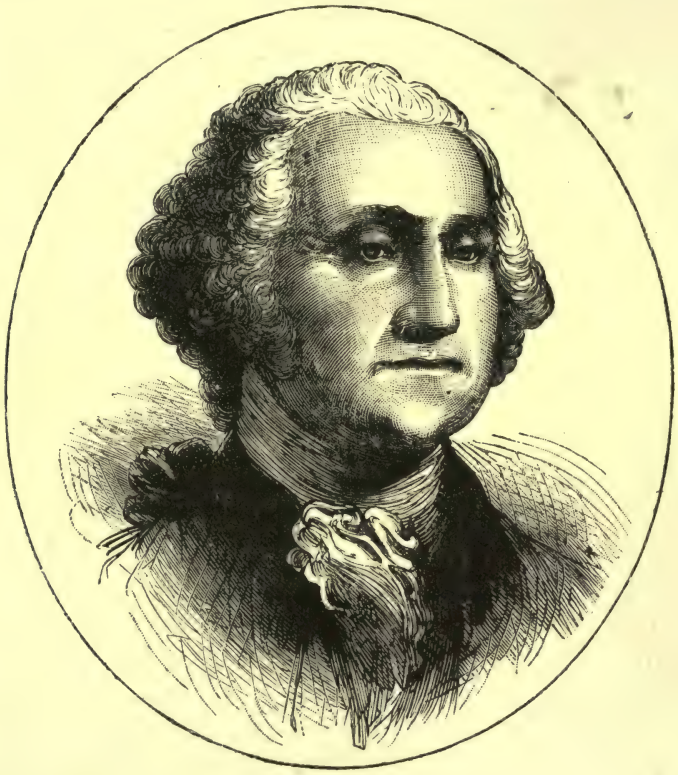
SURRENDER OF BURGOYNE AT SARATOGA.

Events of the War.

THE Boston Harbour Bill and the two other parliamentary measures produced general excitement in America, and gave rise to a systematic resistance. A Congress of deputies from all the colonies met together at Philadelphia, in September, 1774, and declared that no goods and merchandise should be admitted from England, and also drew up an address to the king, the English people, the inhabitants of Canada, etc., in which it was declared that the Americans only desired to protect their painfully acquired rights from the tyranny of the English Government and Parliament. The English thereupon declared Massachusetts to be in a state of rebellion, renounced all intercourse with the American colonies, and forbade any importation of arms and war ammunition. The Americans then strengthened their militia, forcibly took possession of English weapons, and established in Concord an arsenal of warlike stores. In order to destroy this, the commander of the Boston garrison marched out with his troops, but was attacked near Lexington (19th April, 1775), where the first civil bloodshed occurred.

Both sides were now prepared for war, and the first important battle was fought at Bunker's Hill, in June, 1775, where, it is true, the Americans were defeated, after being three times repulsed ; but the English lost so many men that they were soon obliged to evacuate Boston. This result the Americans owed to their noble-minded compatriot George Washington, of Virginia, who devoted all his energy and ability to the high aim of liberating his fatherland. While he fought for his countrymen with his sword on the field of battle, the

renowned inventor of the lightning-conductor, Benjamin Franklin, who represented his country at the Courts of London and Paris, carried on the struggle both by writing and speaking. The appearance of this homely, sensible man in his simple Quaker dress produced such an enthusiasm for liberty and democracy in the excitable capital of France, that the young and wealthy Marquis de Lafayette and other similar-minded nobles crossed the ocean to venture their lives and blood in the American struggle for liberty, through which they believed that the ideals of Rousseau would be realized. Relying on the prevailing feeling in France, the deputies of the thirteen united States now declared the American colonies independent of England (July, 1776), in



WASHINGTON.

a manifesto drawn up by the wise American statesman, Jefferson. But in spite of the general sympathy which prevailed, which was shared even by the English Opposition leaders Pitt and Fox, and in spite of the efforts of the high-spirited leader of the young State, the cause of the Americans appeared to be in a bad plight when the English Government at last concluded treaties with several German princes, and despatched a large army of Hessians and Hanoverians across the sea, in order to test their European art of warfare against the free sons of the New World. Admirably provided with men and munitions of war, the English general Howe now succeeded in gaining possession of New York, while other commanders successfully resisted the Americans in Canada, where another revolt had been projected. But through

the carelessness of Howe, who, during the winter season devoted himself to his pleasures and amusements, the watchful Washington succeeded, on Christmas night, in crossing the frozen Delaware, taking prisoners a division of Hessian troops, and defeating the English near Princetown.

Though these advantages were again lost by Washington's defeat on the river Brandywine, by the brave English general Cornwallis, the capitulation of Saratoga (October, 1777), which occurred soon afterwards, when 7,000 men of the English army fell into the hands of the American general Gates, changed the aspect of affairs so greatly to the advantage of the young free State, that the French, who had long regarded with envy the growing prosperity of the English colonies, hesitated no longer to enter into an alliance with the Americans.

Extension of the War.—After the news of the capitulation of Saratoga had been received with acclamation in France, the French Government, having more regard to public opinion than to the welfare of the State, recognised the independence of America, in February, 1778, and promised to assist the United States with all its might until this independence was firmly established. The attempt of the English ministry to prevent this alliance by entering into negotiations with America, was frustrated by the judicious tact of the Congress, which was not slow to perceive that it would gain greater advantages from a French than from an English alliance.

At first the French only supported their allies with money and ships, until Lafayette appeared in Paris and procured the despatch of an army, in the ranks of which were many men distinguished by birth, wealth, and talent. The English now withdrew from Pennsylvania to New York, and then decided to remove the seat of war to the southern States of Carolina and Georgia, where lived many adherents of English royalty. They then conquered Savannah and Charlestown, and won two battles under the brave Cornwallis. These misfortunes, together with the want of money, mutinies among the troops, and the treachery of the American general Arnold, brought the young Republic into great straits. A sudden change was, however, brought about in this state of affairs when the French-American army under Lafayette and Washington surrounded General Cornwallis in Yorktown, in October, 1781, compelled him to surrender; in consequence of which, his army of 7,000 men, with all his ammunition, fell into the hands of the victors. This disaster decided the fate of the war; not only were the English now compelled to turn their arms against their European enemies, but the new ministry, including Sheridan, Burke, and Fox, was more inclined to enter into a peaceful agreement with America than the former cabinet under Lord North had been. Pitt had already died, in May, 1778. A violent speech against the measures of the Government on the news of America's alliance with France, had so shaken his weakened health that he fell down while in the House of Commons, and expired soon afterwards at his country estate.

THE ARMED NEUTRALITY.—HOLLAND.



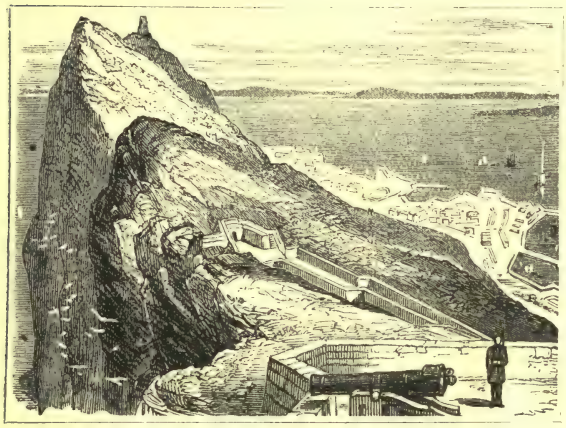
DUTCH GUARDS OF WILLIAM III.

THE alliance concluded between France and America, in June, 1779, which was joined soon afterwards by Spain, had resulted in a violent naval war with England—but for a time the latter maintained its maritime ascendancy unimpaired. When, however, the scheme for an armed league of neutrality was set on foot by Catharine II. of Russia, England's supremacy over the sea appeared likely to be jeopardized. This neutral alliance was gradually joined by Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, the Emperor, Naples, and Portugal. Holland, however, delayed so long in announcing its participation in the league, that at last England declared war against the Dutch. Holland came forth from this conflict with damaged fortunes; for the dissensions which continued during the war between the Government and the patriots so paralysed the powers of the Republic, that in spite of the indecisive naval battle on the Doggerbank (August, 1781), on the English coast, the ancient renown of the Dutch sustained a dangerous blow. The greatest loss was, however, inflicted by the English admiral Rodney, by the conquest of the island of Martinique; and though the French some time afterwards assisted in regaining possession of it, nevertheless, the whole war in the East and West Indies proved so extremely disadvantageous, that Holland entirely forfeited its naval position, the Dutch East and West India Companies sustained irreparable losses, and trade was irrevocably injured. The cession of the East Indian town of Negapatam to England in the Peace of Versailles, was the smallest calamity which the Republic sustained in this disastrous conflict.

These events had so roused the indignation of the people against their hereditary Stadtholder, that he deemed it advisable to relinquish his dignities, and to leave the country. The people, however, who had become imbued with the new democratic principles of the rights of man, were not content with this, but directed their anger also against the Stadtholder himself. William V. was compelled first to quit the Hague; then the whole province of Holland rose up, under the guidance of the patriots, deprived the Stadtholder of the chief command in the army, and began to alter the Constitution (1785). A revolutionary movement soon showed itself throughout the whole of Holland; and when the wife of the hereditary Stadtholder, an energetic and resolute woman, set out on a journey from Guelderland, where she then held her

court, to the Hague, she was detained on the frontier, and compelled by the militia of citizens to return. This proceeding, which was represented by the princess and the English ambassador as a grievous outrage on the lawful authority, appeared to render it incumbent on King Frederick William II. of Prussia to undertake the chivalrous duty of protecting his injured sister. He caused a considerable army, under the Duke of Brunswick, to march into Holland to reinstate the prince in his office (Sept., 1787), and as the patriotic party appealed in vain to France for assistance, Utrecht and Amsterdam were easily secured, and the Constitution was again restored to its original form.

GIBRALTAR.—TREATIES.



GIBRALTAR.

IN the meantime France and Spain were carrying on a conflict with England with better success. A French-Spanish fleet attacked the island of Minorca, which for eighty years had been in the possession of the English, though it had temporarily fallen into the hands of the French at the beginning of the Seven Years' War. Partial success filled the allies with the hope of seizing Jamaica and Gibraltar also. In order to accomplish the first enterprise, the French Admiral de Grasse endeavoured to form a coalition with the Spanish fleet, but was suddenly attacked with such success by Rodney, near Dominica (April, 1782), that his fleet was broken through, and he himself fell into the hands of the English. The capture of Gibraltar, however, was more confidently relied on; but after the expenditure of unheard-of efforts in the organization of an extensive blockade, the attack was triumphantly repulsed by the English commander, Elliot, who was created Lord Heathfield. Soon after, a provisional treaty was concluded between the free States of America and the English ministry, by which the young Republic not only obtained the recognition of its independence, but also a more advantageous frontier, and a share in the fisheries of Newfoundland (Nov., 1782). This latter point was also agreed to by France, which, moreover, obtained the island of Tobago, and in the East Indies and Africa got back again her lost possessions. Spain gave up her claims to Gibraltar in return for the surrender of Florida and Minorca. In England the arrangement of these preliminaries created such dissatisfaction throughout the nation and in Parliament, that the ministers were compelled to resign, and a so-called Coalition ministry, consisting of the chiefs of the two opposing parties, North and Fox, took their place. The new cabinet also deemed the confirmation of the peace advisable, as the burden of debt in England had increased enormously during the war.

Thus had America gained her liberty, and Washington was able to relinquish his command into the hands of Congress, and, like a second Cincinnatus, to retire to his estate at Mount Vernon in Virginia (Dec. 1783). But many

internal conflicts had still to be undergone before America attained the Constitution which she enjoys to-day. Unanimity was needed between the different States to meet the debt of the Union, to maintain the necessary troops for the protection of the whole, and to subordinate the democratic representative institutions and liberties to the control of a common government. When the Congress appealed to Washington to assert his influence in the abolition of abuses, he replied: "What you need is government, not influence." Thereupon Alexander Hamilton, who had fought under Washington as his adjutant in the war of liberation, and had then become an



advocate and member of the legislative body at New York, devised the right form of government. He suggested that the different States, with their several characteristics, should continue their separate existence, but that at the same time, for all practical common interests, a single joint legislature, government, and administration of the laws should be established. For a long time his theories met with great opposition, till at last, in the year 1787, most of the States agreed that the legislative power and the supreme government of the Union should be placed in the hands of a Congress and of a responsible president, to be newly elected every four years.



THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

THE REIGN OF TERROR.

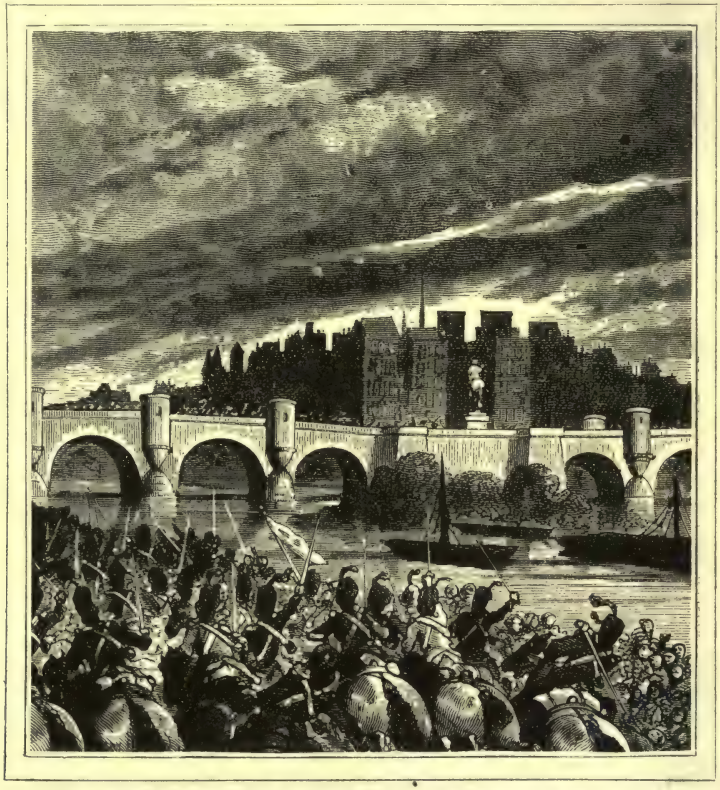
THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.—THE 4TH OF AUGUST, 1789.—ABOLITION OF FEUDAL PRIVILEGES.—THE KING AND NATIONAL ASSEMBLY IN PARIS.—CONFISCATION OF CHURCH PROPERTY.—FÊTE OF THE FEDERATION.—FLIGHT OF THE KING.—THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY, OCTOBER, 1791, TO SEPTEMBER, 1792.—GROWTH OF REPUBLICANISM. THE VARIOUS PARTIES.—GIRONDISTS, JACOBINS, ETC.—AGITATION AGAINST ROYALTY.—THE PEOPLE IN THE PALACE.—THE TENTH OF AUGUST, 1792.—OVERTHROW OF THE MONARCHY—MASSACRE OF THE SWISS GUARDS.—THE SEPTEMBER DAYS OF MASSACRE.—THE NATIONAL CONVENTION.—SEPTEMBER, 1792, TO OCTOBER, 1795.—EXECUTION OF THE KING.—THE WAR AND ITS EVENTS.—FALL OF THE GIRONDISTS.—THE REIGN OF TERROR.—OUTRAGES IN THE SOUTH.—INSURRECTION IN BRETAGNE AND LA VENDÉE.



THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.—THE KING BROUGHT TO PARIS.

AS the Government had made no drafts of a new Constitution, and was powerless to direct the course of public business, it followed that the deputies, obeying the impulse of the times and imitating the precedent of the American free States, began, as the Americans had done before them, with the declaration of the rights of man. The assertion of this universal theory, prompted by enthusiasm for popular liberty, was intended to show that the principal aim was the abolition of the despotism and irresponsibility of royal power and of the privileges of the upper classes; but, instead of this, it led to the tyranny of the masses. On the 4th of August, the Viscount de

Noailles, Lafayette's brother-in-law, made the proposition that the privileged classes should prove to the people by deeds that they desired to lighten their burdens; and as a proof of the sincerity of their goodwill they should of their own accord renounce all their feudal rights, dating from the middle ages. This proposal excited a storm of enthusiasm; towns, states, and provinces vied with each other for the honour of making the greatest sacrifice for the common weal. Propositions followed one another with feverish haste and rapidity, so that in a single sitting, prolonged into the night, the complicated structure of a form of government which had endured for more than a thousand years was destroyed, and the condition of France was entirely transformed.



ROYALIST CAVALRY ATTACKING A PARISIAN CROWD.

A single chamber was appointed, which was not subordinate, but equal to the king. This assembly was to possess the sole legislative power and the right of initiating laws and abrogating laws. The king was only permitted to exercise a suspensive veto, on the strength of which a law which had been carried by the chamber could be suspended for four years.

When the king delayed to proclaim the Constitution, a rumour was spread abroad that some arbitrary measure was intended; and this rumour was very generally believed when the regiment called "Flanders" was summoned to Versailles, and at a banquet given to the new comers, the king and queen and their children appeared among the half-tipsy soldiers, and reactionary toasts and cries resounded through the hall. The excitement of

the people was still further increased by the want of bread, a dearth which was ascribed to the absence of the Court from Paris. On the 5th of October, an immense crowd of people, chiefly composed of women, marched to Versailles under the leadership of the Bastille hero Maillard, to demand from the king an alleviation of their famishing condition, and the return of the Court to Paris. The king endeavoured to pacify them with a favourable answer; but in the night a wing of the castle was stormed, and several of the body-guards at the entrance were massacred. On the following day the king was compelled to consent to come back to Paris with his family, under the escort of the terrible mob; he took up his abode in the palace of the Tuileries, which had not been inhabited for many years.

The Founding of New Conditions.—As the 4th of August had shattered the power of the nobility, and the 5th of October had dragged the splendour of royalty down into the dust, so in November and the following months the independent position of the clergy and the jurisdiction of Parliament were destroyed, and the way was paved for the "liberty and equality" of all French "citizens." At Talleyrand's suggestion, the property of the Church was confiscated to the State; and the payment of the clergy, as well as the maintenance of public worship and the care of the poor, devolved upon the Government. This was followed also by the dissolution of the monasteries and ecclesiastical orders. After all class distinctions had been annihilated, the National Assembly took the extreme step of declaring universal equality, and abolishing the hereditary nobility and every mark of class distinction, such as titles, heraldic bearings, etc., as well as the main source of difference of wealth, the law of primogeniture.

While the National Assembly was engaged with these labours, the power fell gradually into the hands of the masses, who were kept in a constant state of excitement by violent demagogues and inflammatory publications. Among these newspapers none exercised such a disastrous influence as the "People's Friend," by the odious and bloodthirsty Marat, a vulgar horse-doctor of Neuchâtel. The different sections in Paris set the laws and authorities at defiance; they were led by the democratic clubs, who obtained the names of Jacobins (Dominicans) and Cordeliers (Franciscans), after the monasteries where they held their meetings. At the head of the latter party were the terrible Danton and the talented and popular orator and advocate, Camille Desmoulins.



LOUIS XVI. BROUGHT BACK TO PARIS.

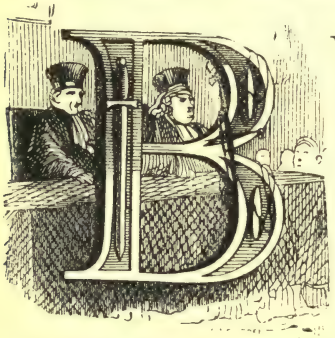
FÊTE OF THE FEDERATION.—FLIGHT OF THE KING.

ON the anniversary of the storming of the Bastille, a gigantic federation festival was organized, July 14th, 1790, in an amphitheatre erected on the Champ de Mars at Paris, when Talleyrand, Bishop of Autun, consecrated the banners of the eighty-three departments into which France had just been divided for the purpose of representation ; and Lafayette, in the name of the national guard, the president of the National Assembly, and at last the king himself, swore fidelity to the Constitution amid a scene of the greatest enthusiasm. The joyous excitement, however, passed away, and the position of the king became more difficult than ever. Necker, incapable of guiding the popular movement as he desired, quitted France and went to Switzerland. Mirabeau, who had been won over by the Court, and who opposed with all his might any further limitations of the royal prerogative, died at this crisis, at the age of forty-two, in April, 1791.

Louis' delay in confirming the civil order of priesthood, and his refusal to avail himself of the services of ecclesiastics who had taken the oath, and also to declare those emigrants traitors who had endeavoured to induce foreign courts to make war on France, gave the enemies of the monarchy and the friends of disorder fresh material for exciting the passions of the people. The king now formed the desperate resolution of escaping secretly by the northern frontier of the kingdom. Leaving behind him a document, which set forth innumerable grievances, and which contained a protest against everything that

had been extorted from him since October, 1789, the king made his escape with his family in a large carriage from Paris, on the night of the 21st of June, 1791. He was, however, recognised by the son of the postmaster Drouet, at St. Menehould; was detained at Varennes; and by the command of the National Assembly, who, at the first intelligence of the secret escape, had pronounced the suspension of the king, and had taken possession of the executive and of the royal seals, he was brought back again, with his terrified family, accompanied throughout the fatal journey by an immense crowd of people. This lamentable flight, and the repeal of the draft of the Constitution, deprived the king of the last remnant of respect and authority. A large party now urged that Louis should be placed upon his trial, and some of his enemies even demanded his deposition, but this was over-ruled by the constitutional party. The suspension, however, still remained in force, until, at the end of September, the king swore to observe and proclaim the completed Constitution.

THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY, OCTOBER 1, 1791, TO SEPTEMBER 20, 1792.



BY the completion of the Constitution the work of the Constituent Assembly was finished. That body was accordingly dissolved and made way for another, which was to complete the work by the addition of a new legislature, and therefore assumed the title of the Legislative Assembly. The number of the new deputies was 745. The Right, composed of adherents of the constitutional monarchy, became daily weaker; while the Left, the side chosen by the Republicans, constantly increased. The latter divided into two camps, the Mountain, where the most decided Democrats and Radicals sat (Chabot, Bazire, Couthon, Thuriot, Cambon, etc.), and the Plain, where the most moderate Republicans or Girondists placed themselves.



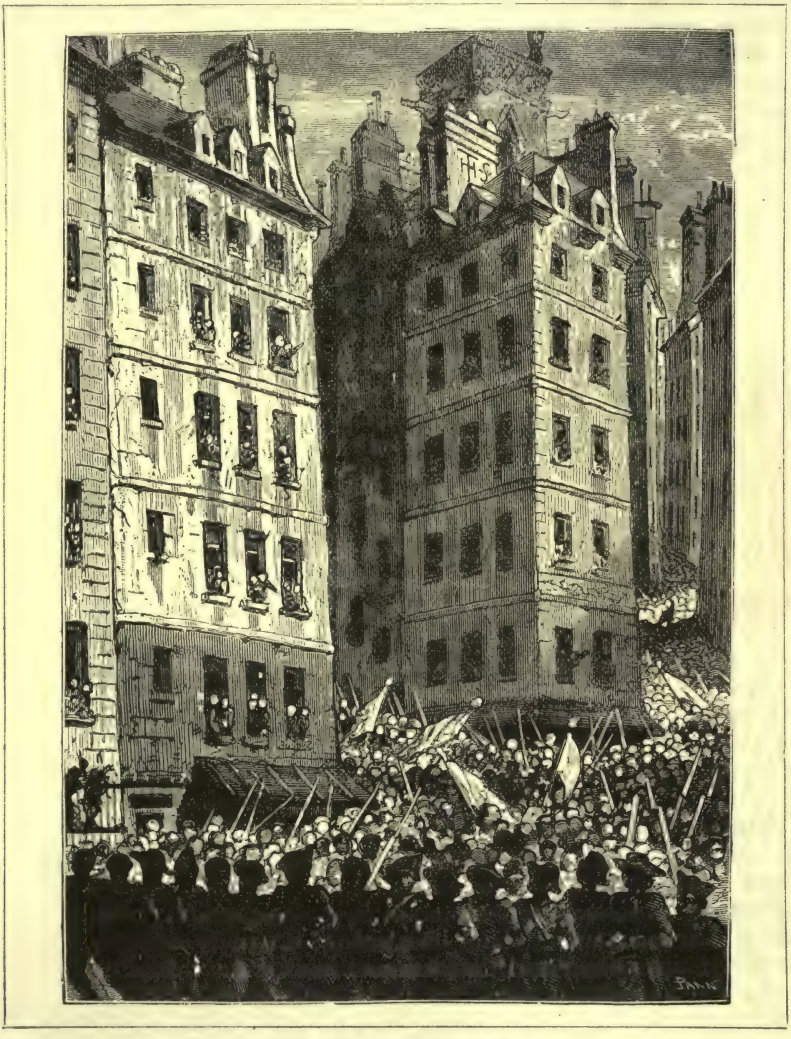
ROBESPIERRE.

The citizens of Paris, who made the Republican Pétion their mayor in place of Bailly, and elected the monsters Danton and Robespierre to the common council, exercised a terrible power. The Jacobins club increased in power and importance, and enlarged the sphere of its influence in the provinces. Robespierre, Marat, the actor Collot d'Herbois, the journalist Tallien, and also Danton and Camille Desmoulins, the leaders of the Cordeliers, took part in the sittings of the Jacobins club. The Girondists at first rallied round Roland and his gifted and virtuous wife; but at a later period Brissot held the most prominent position.

The most important members were Guadet, Vergniaud, the philosopher

Condorcet, Buzot, Huard, Barbaroux, the friend of Charlotte Corday, and also general Dumouriez.

Agitation against Royalty.—The new Assembly directed its attacks principally against those priests who refused the oath, and against the emigrants who made Coblentz, Worms, and other places, a "hot-bed of counter-revolution." In November, a decree appeared commanding that lists should be



THE 14TH OF JUNE, 1792.

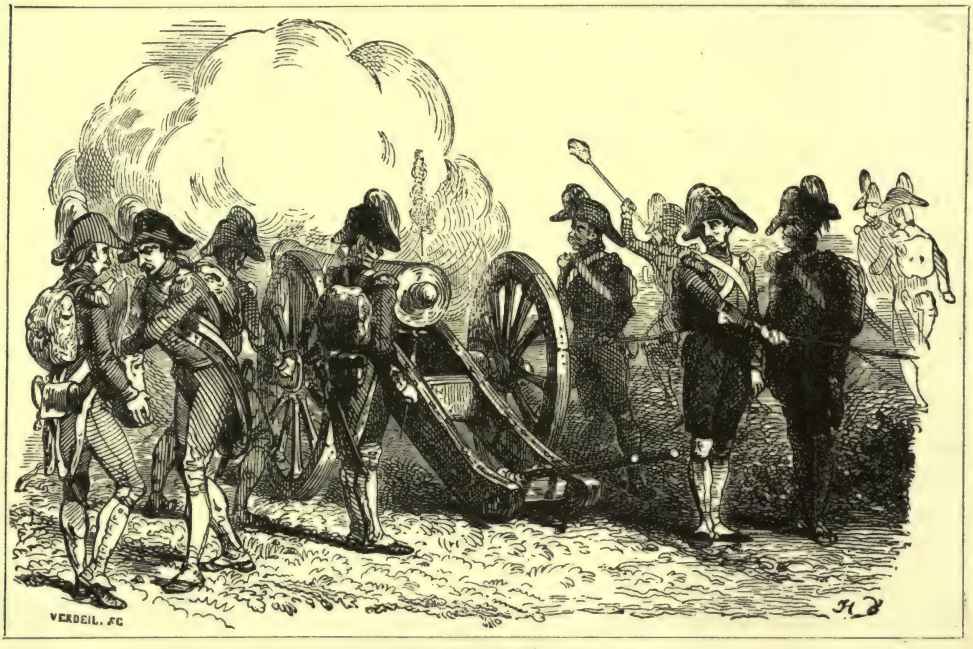
drawn up of those priests who had taken the oath, and those who had not; that the latter should lose their pensions, and in case they provoked rebellion against the law, should undergo a two years' imprisonment. Against this proclamation, which was completely opposed to religious liberty, the king placed his veto, and also against the simultaneous proposal that all emigrants who had not returned to France by January, 1792, should be sentenced to death as traitors and conspirators against their fatherland, and that their property should be handed over to the nation.

Against the emigrants the whole wrath of the popular representatives was directed. When the German courts paid no attention to the complaints of the Girondist ministry regarding the warlike prepations made by the emigrants, and Prussia and Austria assumed a menacing attitude, war was declared against both, and the king was compelled to give his consent, with the tears in his eyes. It was proposed to summon a detachment of 20,000 national guards (Federates) from the southern provinces for the protection of Paris. To this, however, the king steadfastly refused to give his consent; and a letter drawn up by Madame Roland, in which the king was sharply censured for his obstinacy, still further increased the popular agitation. On the 20th of June, the anniversary of the taking of the oath in the tennis-court, a terrible mob, armed with pikes came forth from the suburbs, under the leadership of the brewer Santerre, the butcher Legendre, and the coppersmith Rossignol, and entered first the National Assembly and then the royal palace, in order to compel the king to ratify the decrees against the priests who had not taken the oath, and to summon the Federates. Louis, however, remained steadfast. He defied, for several hours, the derision of the populace, who even placed the red Jacobin's cap upon his head; until the tardy arrival of Pétion with the guard of citizens freed him from the dangerous position. This occurrence induced Lafayette to leave the army in the north and to travel of his own accord to Paris, to protect the Constitution and save the poor king. But the dislike which the queen bore towards the "citizen general," combined with his own indecision, rendered the plan fruitless. He returned to the army in the north, followed by the hatred and distrust of the Jacobins.



The Overthrow of the Sovereignty on the 10th of August.—The war had at last broken out, to the great delight of the Prussian officers, who promised themselves but little trouble and handsome profits from the French campaign. A Prussian army immediately marched into Lorraine under the command of Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, who, on setting out, issued a manifesto full of offensive threats against the National Assembly and the city of Paris, if the king were subjected to any further violence; but if the inhabitants of Paris would show themselves submissive, their royal and imperial majesties promised to intercede with king Louis on their behalf when the army entered the capital. This arrogant language made a powerful impression on the people, who were filled with new-born ardour for their liberties and independence; and the Jacobins availed themselves of the excited state of public feeling to attempt the overthrow of the king. The revolutionary party had

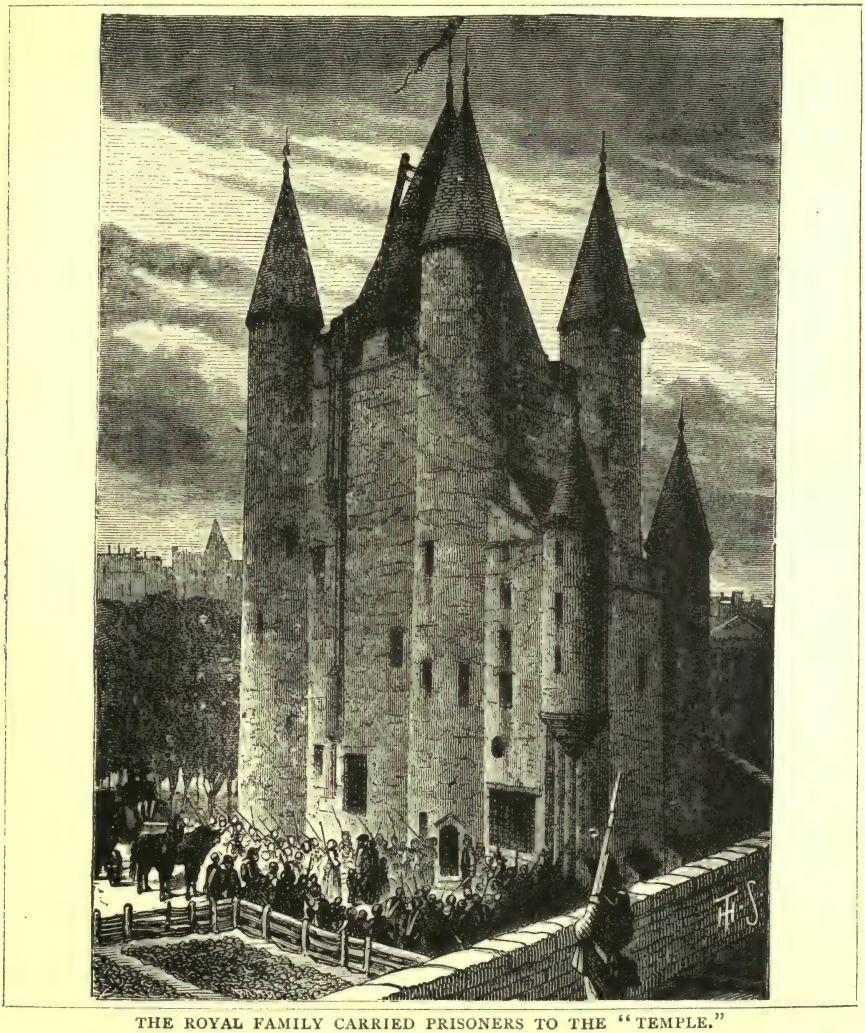
already caused the accusations against the leaders of the town council, Pétion and Manuel, for popular excesses to be set aside; they had availed themselves of the declaration of the popular assembly that "the country was in danger," to procure bands of the lowest class of people from Marseilles and Brest, and to establish in all the towns and villages a new military force; the Jacobins also set up a revolutionary committee, and prepared the rude inhabitants of the suburbs for the great attack on the sovereignty. On the 10th of August the alarm-bell resounded at midnight. The scum of the population from the sea-port towns, with Danton, Camille Desmoulins, and Carra at their head, and the Paris mob, led by Westermann and Santerre, marched first to the council-house to instal a new municipal government composed of the fiercest democrats, and then directed their attacks against the Tuileries. Cannons were turned upon the palace, men with pikes made



FRENCH ARTILLERYMEN OF 1792.

their way through every entrance, and the people loudly demanded the deposition of the king, who at last made his escape with his family, and sought protection in the hall of the National Assembly. In the meantime the Swiss guards offered resistance, and gallantly defended the entrance to the palace until a command was extorted from the intimidated king forbidding his guards to fire; when the faithful protectors of the monarch were given over to destruction. Upwards of 5,000 men, of whom 700 were Swiss, died in the conflict, or fell afterwards, victims to the wrath of the people. Meanwhile, at the suggestion of Vergniaud, the National Assembly passed a resolution declaring that "the royal power should be suspended, that the king and his family should be placed under supervision, that the prince should be handed over to a tutor, and that a national convention should be summoned to decide on the future constitution of France."

The September Days.—After the suspension of the king, a fresh ministry was appointed, of which the terrible Danton, who took the post of Minister of Justice and Keeper of the Seals, was the soul. He and the new Common Council of Paris, who had installed themselves and added to their number by the admission of members who were appalled by no crime, now shared the power between them. Soon all the prisons were filled with suspected persons and aristocrats. When the news arrived of the advance of the allies, an army



THE ROYAL FAMILY CARRIED PRISONERS TO THE "TEMPLE."

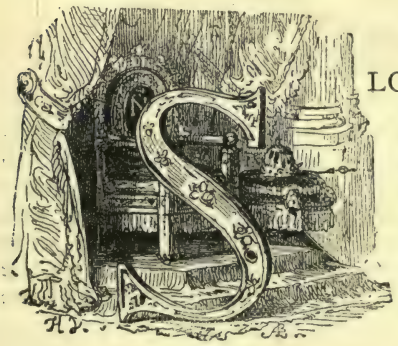
of 30,000 men was got together, and the municipal council established a watch committee and a provisional court of justice. When the prisons were full to overflowing with aristocrats and suspected royalists, a terrible decree was issued, commanding a general massacre of the prisoners. From the 2nd to the 5th of September bands of hired murderers and miscreants went through the prisons, twelve of them officiating as jurymen and judges, the others as executioners. Upwards of 3,000 persons, among them some of the

most worthy and distinguished men in France, were slain by these murderous bands, who received daily pay for their "labours" from the common council. Similar violence was also perpetrated in several towns. Lafayette, who was opposed to the overthrow of the monarchy, and was consequently declared a traitor by the National Assembly, at last attempted to escape to North America. He, however, fell into the hands of his enemies, who detained him as a prisoner of war, and caused him to languish for five years in the prisons of Magdeburg and Olmütz. Talleyrand obtained a pass from Danton for England; and then waited in America for more peaceful times.

The National Convention (Sept., 1792, till Oct., 1795).

Execution of the King.—In the new Assembly, which was brought together under the influence of the Jacobins and the most violent republicans and demagogues, the Girondists had at first the preponderance; but soon the bloodthirsty tyrants, Robespierre, Danton, Marat, Couthon, Fouché, the Duke of Orleans, who now bore the name of Egalité, the Marquis St. Just, and Barrière, the "Anacreon of the guillotine," soon proved themselves invincible. The Jacobins and Cordeliers governed the common council, which possessed in the national guard and in the "Sansculottes," as the mob was called, a terrible armed force with which to overcome the Convention. The guillotine, invented by the deputy Guillotin, and called after his name, proved an expeditious engine of public executions.

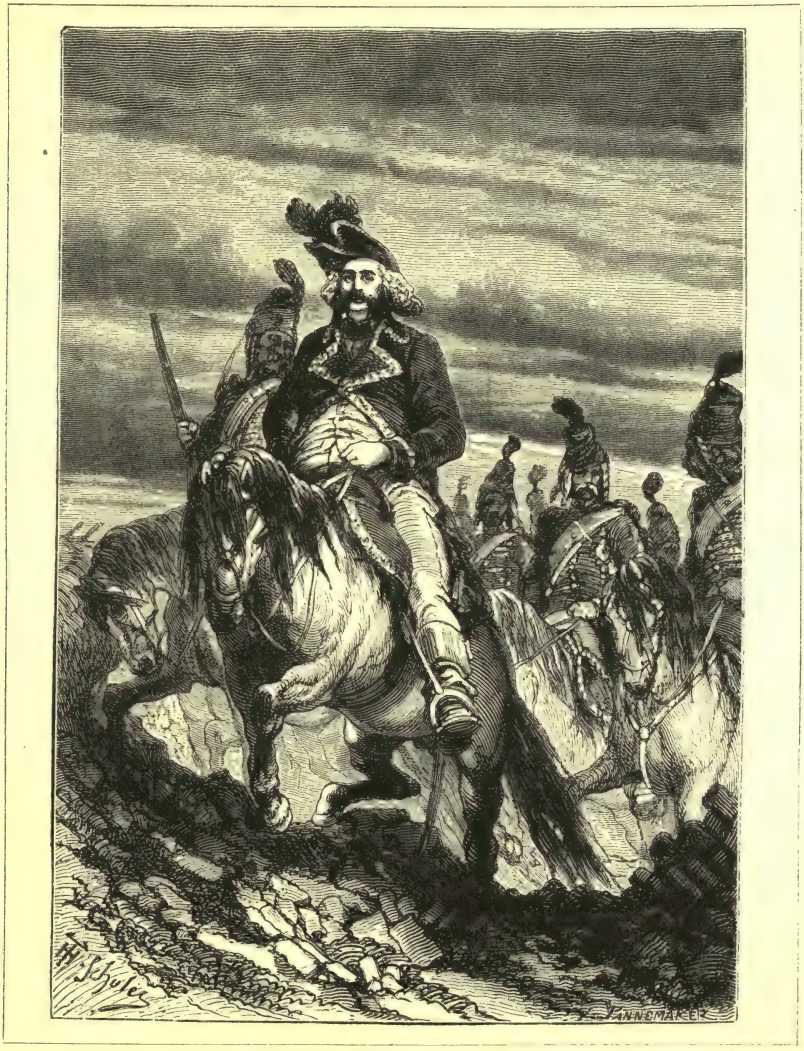
The trial of the king, "Louis Capet," was one of the first transactions of the National Convention. Some secret letters had been discovered which seemed to indicate that the French Court was not only in alliance with Austria and the emigrants for the overthrow of the Constitution, but that it had endeavoured to bribe different members of the National Assembly. Upon this the Republicans founded an accusation of treason and conspiracy against the king, who twice appeared before the Convention. But in spite of his dignified bearing and defence and the efforts of the Girondist party, Louis was sentenced to death at a stormy sitting which was prolonged far into the night, by a small majority of votes (Jan. 17th, 1793). In vain did the Girondists and moderate party endeavour to obtain a respite; their opposition only hastened their downfall. On the 21st of January the unfortunate king ascended the scaffold. The beating of the drums drowned his last words, and "Robespierre's women" saluted his bleeding head with the exclamation, "Long live the Republic!" Thus in these fatal days two great crimes were committed,—in France a king was murdered, in Poland a nation was destroyed.



Events of the War.

SLOWLY and methodically did the Prussian-Austrian army, under Brunswick, march through Lorraine in spite of the efforts made by Frederick William II., who burned, with the desire of avenging the violated sovereignty, to induce the duke to make a hasty attack upon Paris. When, therefore, the French generals, Dumouriez and Kellerman, successfully repulsed the attack of the

enemy, the Prussian army relinquished the project of a further advance, and quitted French territory. After the withdrawal of the Prussian troops, Dumouriez marched against the Austrian army in Belgium, won the battle of Jemappes (Nov. 6th, 1792), and not only conquered the Austrian Netherlands with Liége, but also took possession of the fortresses on the Dutch frontier, and threatened Holland with a similar fate. Brilliant conquests were also made in Sardinia and Savoy, which had now joined the enemies of France.



CUSTINE AND HIS HUSSARS.

Dumouriez, who was influenced by the Girondists, and was displeased with the barbarous proceedings of the Convention, soon drew upon himself the hatred and suspicion of the powerful democratic party; a watch was kept upon him by Convention deputies, who undermined his authority with the army. It was about this time that a new Austrian army, under the

Prince of Coburg, appeared in the Netherlands, defeated the French on the Maas, and foiled Dumouriez himself near Neerwinden (March, 1793). This defeat the French general ascribed principally to the Jacobins, declaring they had corrupted the army, mismanaged the supplies, and had appointed an incompetent general to act with him. In his vexation he allowed it to be seen that he contemplated the overthrow of the Convention, and the restoration of a monarchy with the duke of Orleans as king. Threatened by the Convention with an accusation of treason, he went over into the enemy's camp with Louis Philippe, son of the duke of Orleans, and about 1,500 men. Belgium thus fell into the hands of the allies, and paid a heavy penalty for its Republican sympathies.

In the autumn the hussar general, Custine, had invaded the Rhine districts, and with little difficulty had invested the towns of Speyer, Worms, Mayence, and even Frankfort. The lively and pleasure-loving citizens of Mayence were easily persuaded to an annexation to France and the establishment of a republican Constitution and Jacobin club.

Among the "Clubbists of Mayence" was George Forster, who had sailed round the world, a man of ardent temperament and inspired with enthusiasm for the cause of liberty.

Fall of the Girondists. After the death of the king, the Convention assumed the executive and legislative power, and the public business was undertaken by different committees; the Committee of Public Safety, however, soon absorbed all the power in the government. The principal instrument of tyranny was the terrible revolutionary tribunal, which passed sentences of death, against which there was no appeal. Marat, who, next to Robespierre, had possessed the most authority in the Jacobin's club, soon found himself superseded by Hébert, who, in the publication *Père Duchesne*, reached the extreme limits of cynicism, and openly incited the people to murder and rebellion. Power was now entirely in the hands of the masses, and all the well-to-do lived in constant danger of being robbed, and were compelled to submit to heavy contributions for the maintenance of the hungry multitude. The supremacy of the Paris common council at last suggested to the followers of Brissot the idea of transforming France into a federate State, consisting of several small republics, in order to avert the danger of centralization. From this there arose a life-and-death struggle between the Federalists (Brissotists of the Gironde) and the Jacobins.

Scarcely had the Orleanist party been scattered, through Dumouriez' flight and treason, before the democrats of the Mountain directed their attacks against the Gironde. Their spokesman, Robespierre, brought forward the proposal that the leaders of the Girondist party should be brought before the revolutionary tribunal as accomplices of Dumouriez. His suggestion was, however, defeated by the overpowering eloquence of the accused; and when Marat tried to excite the people to rebellion against the enemies of the Republic and the authors of the prevailing famine, the Girondists availed themselves of the opportunity of bringing an accusation against the tyrant himself. Marat was, however, absolved by the court of justice, which was composed of Jacobins, and was carried off by the people in triumph to the Convention. A decree was then passed by the Girondists, appointing a commission of twelve members for inquiry into the daily disturbances and the discovery of the instigators. This led to the imprisonment of the journalist, Hébert, and other agitators; but on the following day the mob insisted on their liberation, and on the 31st of May an agitation commenced which was

continued through the two following days; and the Tuileries, where the Convention now held its sittings, was besieged by a threatening crowd, who loudly demanded the abolition of the Commission of Twelve, and the immediate exclusion of the Girondists and Moderates. The mob forced their way into the assembly-hall, and the members, with the president, Hérault de Sechelles, at their head, endeavoured to leave in a mass, but being driven back by Henriot, nothing remained for them but to agree to the demands of the people and the Mountain party, and to recognise the sovereignty of the masses. Four-and-thirty Girondists were immediately excluded and imprisoned; twenty of them, however, escaped, and appealed to the inhabitants of Brittany and Normandy to take up arms against the Jacobins. But the insurrection had no successful result, and only hastened the overthrow of its instigators, especially as Marat's murder by the enthusiast, Charlotte Corday, afforded the members of the Mountain a welcome opportunity for encouraging the agitation among the people (July, 1793). Charlotte Corday died on the scaffold; Marat, on the other hand, was interred in the Pantheon.



CHARLOTTE CORDAY.

On the 31st of October all the Girondists in Paris were guillotined; and of those who had escaped, some, like Roland and Condorcet, committed suicide. Madame Roland died on the scaffold.

Outrages in the South.—The bloody sway of the Jacobins provoked insurrections in the interior of France, which were all repressed with inhuman cruelty. The inhabitants of Normandy and Brittany were severely punished for an attempt to reinstate the Girondists; and horrible cruelties were perpetrated by the Jacobins in the towns of Lyons, Marseilles, and Toulon. The Royalists of Toulon had summoned the English to their aid, and, with the assistance of Spanish and Italian troops, defied their Republican adversaries. But the army of "sansculottes,"—in which the young Corsican Napoleon Bonaparte gave the first proofs of his talents for generalship,—overcame every

obstacle. Toulon was carried by storm ; and the English, unable to hold the town, set fire to the fleet, and left the unfortunate inhabitants to the horrible vengeance of the Convention.

Napoleon Bonaparte, the son of a Corsican nobleman, was born at Ajaccio on the 15th of August, 1769, two months after the subjugation of the island by the French. At ten years of age he entered the military school at Brienne, where he remained for five years ; he then entered the military school of Paris. At both places he devoted himself especially to mathematical and historical studies, which always remained his favourite pursuits. After entering the French army, he soon made himself remarkable for his courage and skill ; and in February, 1792, was promoted to be captain of artillery. Filled with zeal for liberty and revolutionary ideas, he was a welcome assistant to the new French despots ; and his ambition led him quickly to recognise the advantages of a union with the Mountain party.



REPUBLICAN PRISONER IN A PEASANT'S HUT.

The Scenes of Carnage in La Vendée.—The most terrible fate of all befell the inhabitants of La Vendée, who lived peacefully in a western province of France in the simplicity of olden times. The peasants and farmers were devoted to their lords of the manor, loved their king, and regarded the clergy with reverence and affection ; and their indignation at the violent excesses of the National Assembly at last drove them to open revolt. The first army despatched by the Jacobins was successfully repulsed ; but the second, commanded by Westermann, and composed of the very scum of the population, fell like raving wolves upon the unfortunate inhabitants, set fire to towns and villages, and sought by terror and violence to break the resistance of the "Royalists." For a time the courage of the Vendéans remained unsubdued, until fresh detachments of troops under Kléber forced the miserable people to submit, after their once prosperous country had been transformed into a wilderness.



THE GREAT WAR.—EUROPE AGAINST FRANCE.

FORMATION OF THE FIRST COALITION.—PITT AND THE TORY PARTY.—INVASION OF FRANCE BY THE ALLIES.—ENERGY OF THE GOVERNMENT.—THE "LEVÉE EN MASSE."—THE INVADERS REPULSED.—PRUSSIA.—THE TREATY OF BASLE.—THE AUSTRIANS.—THE REIGN OF TERROR IN FRANCE.—EXECUTION OF MARIE ANTOINETTE.—FALL OF THE GIRONDISTS.—REPUBLICAN CHANGES.—THE NEW CALENDAR.—FALL OF DANTON AND HIS COMPANIONS.—THE 9TH OF THERMIDOR.—FALL OF ROBESPIERRE.—LAST DAYS OF THE CONVENTION.—PUNISHMENT OF THE TERRORISTS.—REPRESSION OF THE MOB.—BONAPARTE AND THE OUTBREAK OF THE SECTIONS ON THE 13TH OF VENDEMIAIRE.

THE FIRST WAR OF THE COALITION (1793-1796).



AT first the English government felt reluctant to begin a conflict with the revolutionary party in France. The nation was soon divided into two parties; the one, with Edmund Burke and the Tories at its head, regarded the French Revolution with indignation and horror; and the other, headed by Fox, and possessing a zealous spokesman in Tom Paine, the champion of American liberties, approved of the principles of the Revolution, though not of its bloody excesses. At that time the younger Pitt, son of the great Lord Chatham, was at the head of the ministry; and he and his colleagues, the Tories, were unfavourable to republican theories, and praised and rewarded Burke's monarchical zeal as displayed in his work on the French Revolution. The English Government did not, however, take up a publicly hostile position towards France until the king's head had fallen; when warlike preparations were commenced both by land and sea, and the vacillating European powers were induced to make common cause against the general enemy.

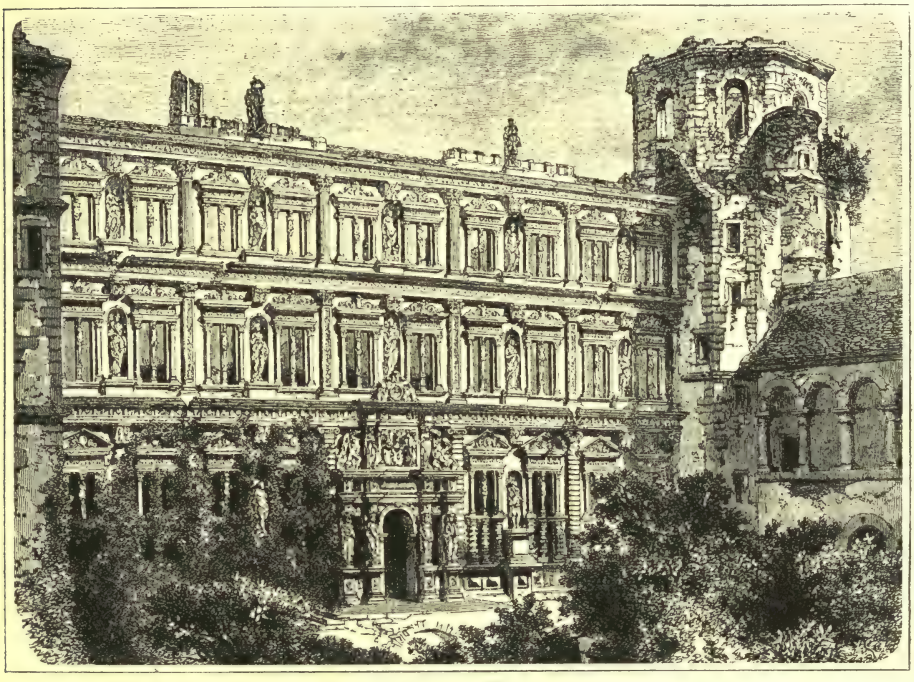
In the summer of 1793 nearly the whole of Europe threatened the French frontiers. While the English fleet endeavoured to destroy the French navy, the Dutch, Austrians, and English marched from the Netherlands into Flanders, German and Prussian troops crossed the Rhine, Sardinia was threatened, and Spanish and Portuguese armies had appeared on the Pyrenees. But the incapability and aimlessness of the commanders, combined with the dissensions of the allies, prevented any brilliant results. The Austrians, after the capture of Condé and Valenciennes (July, 1793), wished to take up a position in French Flanders, and regarded with envy the extension of territory which Prussia was gaining at the time in Poland; the English aimed at the reconquest of Dunkirk; and in the Netherlands the Anglo-Dutch army was so insufficiently supported by the distrustful Austrians that the Republican general Houchard was able to gain a not unimportant victory, near Hondschooten, over the Dutch and Hanoverians (Sept. 8). An attempted counter-revolution under the auspices of the Austrian general Wurmser in Alsace was soon frustrated, and drew down the bloody vengeance of the Republicans. For the Convention, regarding every defeat and mishap as the result of aristocratic treachery, developed a terrible energy, and endeavoured to triumph by terror. Thus Houchard, the victor of Hondschooten, died on the guillotine, like Custine and Beauharnais, because he had been compelled to yield to the superior force of the enemy at Courtray; and the gifted general Hoche suffered in prison the penalty of his defeat at Kaiserslautern. Under these circumstances, the prospect of overpowering the French Republic became even more remote when the energetic Carnot entered the Committee of Public Safety, and with terrible energy proceeded to reorganize the military system. Everywhere weapons were being forged and cannons cast; and by a *levée en masse* the whole nation was made to take part in the war. Near Wattignies the new armies first measured their strength in a succession of battles with the Austrians; but more decisive advantages were gained by the French troops on the Rhine. Wurmser was compelled, after his losses at Hagenau (Sept. 29), to withdraw across the Rhine, and the Prussians failed to conquer Landau. The king of Prussia was now desirous of concluding peace, but the naval powers of England and Holland succeeded by dint of persuasion in keeping him still longer with the Coalition. In consequence of this, Möllendorff and the hussar general Blücher once more measured their strength with the enemy on the blood-stained heights of Kaiserslautern; but the refusal of the field-marshal to respond to the appeal of the naval powers in the Netherlands to aid in repulsing the French, caused the alliance to be again dissolved, and Flanders to be surrendered to the enemy. In June (1794) Pichegru conquered Ypres, and Jourdan, after being four times repulsed across the Sambre, at last defeated the enemy decisively on June 25th, and compelled the evacuation of Belgium. By the beginning of the autumn not only were the Austrian Netherlands again in the possession of the French, but also Treves and the Dutch fortresses on the frontier.

Holland and the Rhine.

UNDER such circumstances, it was not difficult for General Pichegru to attempt in December and January a bold campaign against the States of Holland, and, even with a badly equipped army, to gain possession of the whole country, and force the English troops under the Duke of York to beat a disastrous retreat. The Stadtholder, William V., resigned his office and

took refuge in England, and the patriotic party gave their assistance to the French Republicans in establishing a Republic of Batavia, founded on democratic principles, with the object of allying the wealthy country more closely with the Republic of France. But the Dutch people soon discovered the disadvantages of this alliance, as by a treaty concluded with France on the 16th of May, 1795, the French Government not only obtained the right of free navigation and the use of the harbours, but also extorted the sum of a hundred millions as indemnity for the expenses of the war, gained possession of Dutch Flanders with Maestricht, and asserted the right of garrisoning the most important fortresses.

The Batavian Republic shared all the vicissitudes of the French nation. Until 1798 a democratic Convention was at the head of affairs, and the sove-



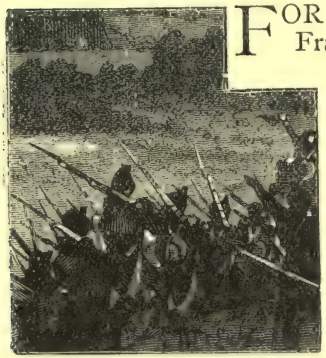
RUINS OF THE CASTLE OF HEIDELBERG.

reignty of the different provinces was abolished. Napoleon, however, restored the old division of the provinces, and subsequently appointed his brother Louis Bonaparte to be king of Holland in 1806.

Equally successful were the arms of France on the Rhine. In October the Prussian troops retreated across the river, and yielded the territory on the other side to the enemy. Soon afterwards the Prussian Government entered into negotiations with France which led to the Peace of Basle (May, 1795). The other German powers, with Spain and Tuscany, also concluded treaties with France, and thus the coalition was scattered, and the theory of the consolidated interests of all the monarchical States, as opposed to the Revolution, was exploded. England, however, obstinately continued the war, and the Austrians, under Clairfait and Wurmser, successfully resisted the French troops.

After Clairfait's victory at Handschuhsheim over Pichegru (24th Sept., 1795), and his successful encounter on the Nidda with Jourdan, the French retreated across the Rhine. The glorious victory near Mayence in October procured the Austrian commander the possession of the country on the other side of the Rhine, and also led to the capture of Heidelberg and the fortified town of Mannheim, which the Palatine commander, Oberndorf, had disgracefully surrendered to the enemy at the first demand. The victorious general however, displeased at the intriguing administration of Thugut, and the reproaches of the council of war, suddenly, to the astonishment of all, demanded and obtained his dismissal. His successor was the Archduke Charles, the Emperor's brother, who soon gave brilliant proofs of distinguished military talents. He successfully resisted the two armies under Jourdan and Moreau; he defeated the former near Wetzlar (June, 1796), and also at Würzburg a few months later, when he compelled him to make a hasty retreat across the Rhine. The German governments now imitated the example of Prussia; and Wurtemberg, Baden, and Bavaria all entered into a treaty with the French Republic.

The Reign of Terror.



FOR a whole year, from July, 1793, to July, 1794, France bent under the terrible tyranny of the Committee of Public Safety, at the head of which stood the three men whose names long remained the terror of the country—the envious, malicious, and self-seeking Robespierre, the bloodthirsty Couthon, and the fanatical Republican St. Just. The other members of the Committee were principally creatures of Robespierre's. The extreme democratic Constitution, which had been drawn up in haste, was temporarily put on one side, and a revolutionary Government was founded under the supervision of the Committee of Public Safety. How this Government used its power for the destruction of the upholders of the old state of things, may be shown by the single fact that in the months of June and July, 1794, no less than 1,285 persons died by the guillotine. The most effectual means of destroying all who stood in the way of the dominant party, was the terrible law against the suspected, which threatened with death all "enemies of the fatherland." The prisons were filled to overflowing, and every one of wealth or rank was in constant danger of death. The evil slander of an enemy, the denunciation of a spy, or the hatred of a sansculotte was sufficient to bring a guiltless person to prison, and from the prison to the scaffold. The transition was so swift that death lost its terrors, and the prisons became the centres of cheerful and refined society and of intellectual intercourse. Among the victims were the former minister Malesherbes, Bailly, Barnave, Linguet, and many moderate Republicans; also several scholars and writers, such as the chemist Lavoisier, the poets André Chenier, Roucher, etc. Florian wrote his "William Tell" shortly before his death in prison. Among them also was the deeply afflicted queen Marie Antoinette, who, both at her trial and her death (16th of October, 1793) exhibited the steadfastness and courage of soul worthy of her birth and breeding. Her son died under the cruel discipline of a Jacobin, the shoemaker Simon; and her daughter, the Duchess of Angoulême, retained through-

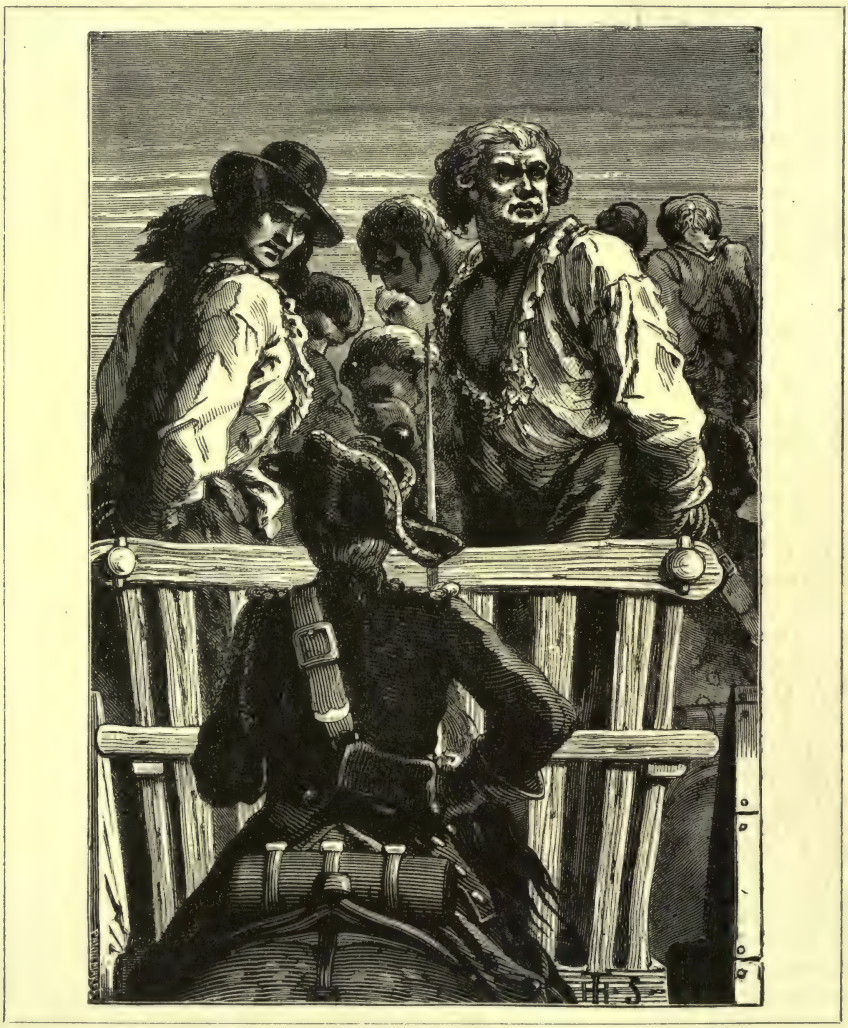
out her life a melancholy spirit and a bitter heart. The queen was followed to the scaffold by Elizabeth, the pious sister of Louis XVI. (10th of May, 1794), and a few weeks after the execution of the Girondists, the profligate Duke of Orleans was also beheaded. Every town had one or more Terrorists, who imitated Robespierre and the other "mighty monsters," and with their bands of armed men, disposed as they pleased of the lives and property of the citizens.

Until the end of July, 1793, Marie Antoinette remained with her two children in the Temple. At last, however, by a decree of the Committee of Public Safety, the mother was to be separated from her children, and in the middle of the night officers were despatched to carry out the command. A terrible scene ensued. For more than an hour she clung to her children in spite of threats and persuasion, until suddenly one of the monsters seized her daughter, and declared that he would stab the girl if she did not surrender her son. Then the poor captive submitted, and allowed one child to be taken from her in order to save the other. On the 14th of October the queen was brought before the revolutionary tribunal. She appeared in ragged garments, with hair that had turned grey, but maintained a demeanour of such tranquil dignity and resignation, that the audience could not help being moved by feelings of respect and compassion. Sentence of death was ultimately passed; and on the 16th of October the queen died on the scaffold.

This cruelty and savagery at last roused the indignation of the leaders of the Cordeliers, Danton and Camille Desmoulins, who were weary of the wholesale murders, and consequently drew upon themselves the anger of the Jacobins. About this time some friends and followers of Danton were accused of dishonesty and fraud on the occasion of the abolition of the East India Company; and the Committee of Public Safety availed itself of this opportunity for destroying Danton's whole party. Since the Convention had changed the calendar and the names of the months, had altered the beginning of the year and the new era to the 22nd September, 1792, and had abolished Sunday, and in place of it introduced decadis and "festivals of the sans-culottes," several of the Dantonists had given great offence by their animosity against Christianity and the priesthood. They plundered and desecrated the churches, violated the graves of the kings at St. Denis, and at last passed the decree that the worship of Reason should be established, in place of the Catholic religion. A festive celebration at Nôtre Dame, at which Momoro's beautiful wife represented the goddess of Reason, marked the commencement of this new era of licentious liberty. The churches were closed, and the bishop of Paris (Gobel) and others renounced Christianity. This gave offence to Robespierre, who determined to overthrow the violent Republicans, and to involve Camille Desmoulins and Danton in their fall. Scarcely had Danton again taken his seat in the Convention in February, 1794, than St. Just commenced the struggle by bringing forward his report, in which he urged the punishment of the enemies of the Republic, whom he divided into Corrupted, Ultra-Revolutionary, and Moderate. In consequence of this report nineteen Ultra-Revolutionaries and several members of the Common Council were led off to the guillotine. On the 31st of March the Corrupted were brought before the revolutionary tribunal, and Danton, Camille Desmoulins, and others were accused of being accomplices. The latter however demanded with threatening vehemence to be put face-to-face with their accusers. For the space of three days Danton's stentorian voice and the tumult of the

people, who were devoted to the accused, rendered a sentence of condemnation impossible, until at last, by a special law passed by the Convention, the blood-stained hero of the 10th of August and of the September days was condemned without a further trial, and beheaded on April 5th, 1794.

Overthrow of Robespierre, the 9th Thermidor (27th of July), 1794.—The occasion of Danton's fall was Robespierre's last triumph; the dictator was stifled

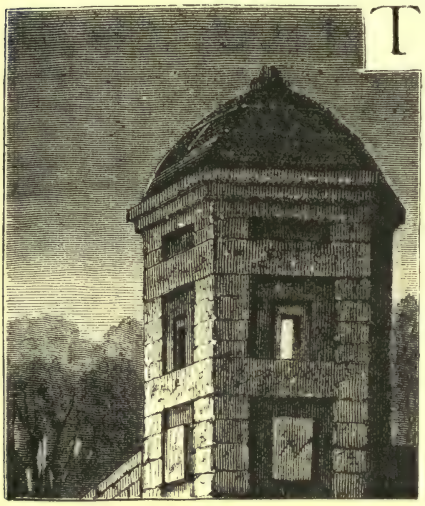


DANTON AND HIS COMPANIONS ON THE WAY TO THE GUILLOTINE.

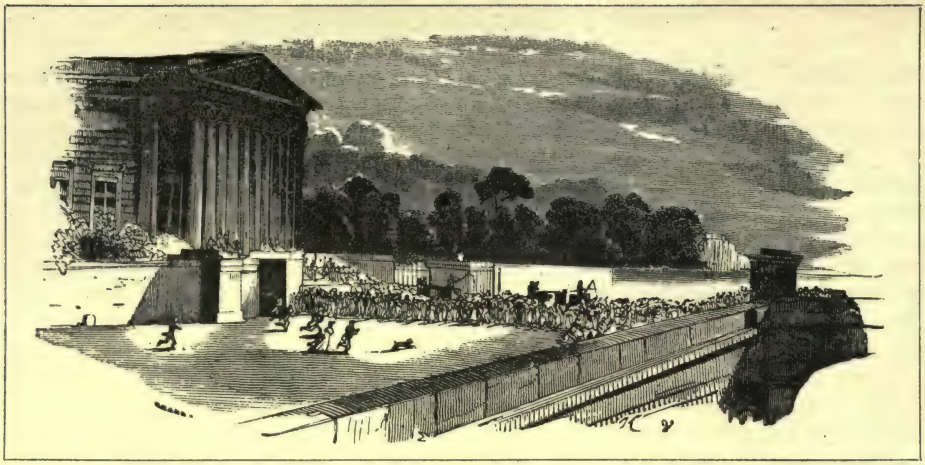
by the blood of his great adversary. Though the three chiefs of the Public Safety Committee still maintained their posts, they had lost their power with the community and the confidence of the Convention, and were conscious that they had become objects of dread and hatred with the nation. The number of their enemies increased when Robespierre, in order to put an end to the blasphemous proceedings of the disciples of the worship of Reason, induced the Convention to pass a decree in May, declaring that: "*The existence*

of a Supreme Being and the immortality of the soul were truths," and at the new festivals of the Supreme Being in the gardens of the Tuileries made himself both odious and ridiculous by his arrogance as high-priest. Among his opponents were Tallien, Fréron, Fouché, Badier, and the glib orator Barère. On the 9th of Thermidor a life-and-death struggle commenced in the Convention, which ended in the three chiefs of the Public Safety Committee being led off to imprisonment in the Luxembourg. On the way they were liberated by the populace; but the National Convention arrived at a speedy decision; a publicly proclaimed proscription suddenly destroyed Henriot's army, while the citizens, who were opposed to the Jacobins, gathered in bands round the Convention. The accused men were once more imprisoned in the council-house. Henriot concealed himself in a sewer, from which he was drawn forth with difficulty. Robespierre endeavoured to shoot himself with a pistol, but only shattered his jaw-bone; and, terribly disfigured, was led off amid the curses and imprecations of the people, first before the revolutionary tribunal, and then to the guillotine with twenty-one of his followers. On the two following days seventy-two Jacobins were beheaded.

The Last Days of the Convention.



THOUGH the overthrow of Robespierre and his friends was only a work of personal revenge, it was nevertheless the beginning of a return to order and moderation. The power of the Jacobins was gradually broken; the Convention, which was governed by the party of Thermidorians, ventured in November to close the club, and this was followed by the execution of the worst ruffians, Carrier and his colleagues, the cruel state-accuser Fouquier Tinville, with eleven judges of the Revolutionary tribunal. The Jacobins made a last attempt to rally their powers, and incited the desperate people to make a terrible resistance; and, supported by the remains of the Mountain party, the Terrorists would probably have gained the victory, had not Pichegru, who was then in Paris, come with his soldiers to the assistance of the Convention. The power of the Jacobins was at an end. The Thermidorians were now opposed by a far more powerful enemy in the Royalists, who had been ousted from power by the new (third) Constitution. According to this Constitution, the executive power was to belong to a Directory composed of five persons, and the legislative power was to be placed in the hands of a Council of Elders and a Council of Five Hundred; the Convention at the same time reserving to itself the privilege of having two-thirds of both councils elected from its own members. Incited by the Royalists, the Sections took up arms against the Convention, who commissioned General Napoleon Bonaparte to undertake the repression of the insurrection. The bloody victory gained in the streets of Paris on the 13th Vendemiaire (Oct. 5th) procured Napoleon the command of the Italian army.



FRANCE UNDER THE DIRECTORY.

OCTOBER, 1795, TO NOVEMBER, 1799.

EXPLOITS AND VICTORIES OF BONAPARTE IN ITALY.—MILLESIMO, MONTENOTTE, LODI, ETC.—TREATY OF TOLENTINO.—TREATY OF CAMPO FORMIO.—INTERNAL RULE OF THE DIRECTORY.—DISTURBANCES IN ROME.—NAPLES.—SWITZERLAND.—THE NEW COALITION.—WAR.—CONFLICTS IN SWITZERLAND AND HOLLAND.—BATTLE OF ZURICH, ETC.—BONAPARTE IN EGYPT AND SYRIA.—BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS, ETC.—THE 18TH OF BRUMAIRE, 1799.—CHANGE OF GOVERNMENT.

BONAPARTE'S ITALIAN CAMPAIGNS, 1796–1797.

VICTOR AMADEUS III., King of Sardinia and Piedmont, had established a magnificent army, but his troops succumbed before the attacks of the enthusiastic troops of the French Republicans. The change of government in Paris, however, and the dishonesty of the army contractors, soon brought the French army in Italy into a miserable condition, and their strength seemed about to waver, when suddenly Napoleon Bonaparte appeared as their commander-in-chief. Endowed by nature with remarkable capacity for generalship, the new leader knew so well how to instil fresh courage into the dispirited troops and to gain their devotion, that under his guidance they defied every danger, and followed him from victory to victory. On the 11th and 12th of April (1796), Napoleon defeated the aged Austrian General Beaulieu near Millesimo, and on the 13th and 14th near Montenotte; and after the victorious battle of Mondovi (22nd of April), compelled King Victor Amadeus to consent to a disgraceful peace, in which he yielded Savoy and Nice to the French Republic. After the peace with Piedmont, Napoleon quickly prosecuted further victories. He forced a passage over the bridge of

Lodi (May, 1796), marched into Milan, and so terrified the Italian princes by his military successes and by his haughty demeanour, that they endeavoured to obtain from the bold conqueror peace at any price. Wurmser now took the place of the old commander, Beaulieu. But he also was defeated near Castiglione (Aug. 1796), when the French surrounded the strong town of Mantua. An army under Alvinzi, despatched to his assistance, sustained three bloody defeats near Arcola, Rivoli, and La Favorita, when the great Austrian army was partly destroyed and partly taken captive, and Mantua fell into the hands of the victors. Terrified at this rapid success, Pope Pius VI. consented to the disadvantageous Peace of Tolentino (Feb. 1797), to prevent the victorious army from entering the States of the Church. After some further successes, Napoleon proceeded to the humiliation of the once proud and powerful Venice. Instead of offering a courageous resistance to the threatening enemy, the senators of Venice humbly implored the mercy of the



BONAPARTE AND POPE PIUS.

proud victor, and consented to yield the executive power into the hands of a democratic council, newly elected by the people. This was the prelude to the complete overthrow of the Free State, as Napoleon merely concealed, with Machiavellian policy, his intention of destroying the town, until every possibility of resistance had disappeared and the Directory had given its consent. In May the French entered the city of lagoons, carried off the shipping, robbed the churches, wrecked the galleries and libraries of their art-treasures, and kept the place garrisoned until the negotiations with Austria had so far succeeded that the peace of Campo Formio was concluded (17th of October, 1797), by which Northern Italy, as the Cisalpine Republic, fell under the dominion of France, and Belgium and the left bank of the Rhine were also won by the Republic.

The members of the Council of Elders and the Council of Five Hundred were chiefly men of moderate Republican sentiments; the five Directors

on the other hand, who were chosen by the Councillors from their own body, were zealous Republicans,—partly Girondists, like La Reveillère-Lepeaux, partly Jacobins, like Carnot, Barras, and Reubel. The Directorial government was moreover hated both by the violent Republicans of the Convention, or Terrorists, and by the Royalists, and had to endure attacks from both. The first attempt at an overthrow was made by the Republicans, under the leadership of Gracchus Babeuf; but the attempt was frustrated by the watchfulness of the Government. Babeuf stabbed himself; and his adherents were either executed or banished. His memory, however, was held in veneration by his followers, and his theories regarding the equality of property formed the basis of the subsequent political combinations of the Communists and Socialists. Still greater was the danger which threatened the Directory Government on the part of the Royalists, who numbered many adherents in the Legislative Assembly. Among them was Pichegru, who, as president of the Council of Five Hundred, sought to bring about the re-establishment of royalty. The Republicans in the Directory turned for aid to Bonaparte, who despatched a division of his army under Bernadotte and Augereau to Paris (September, 1797). On the 18th of Fructidor, Augereau surrounded the Tuileries with his troops, and took the Royalist deputies prisoners; while several members of both councils, including Pichegru, and two Directors, Barthelémy and Carnot, were sentenced to transportation to Cayenne in South America.

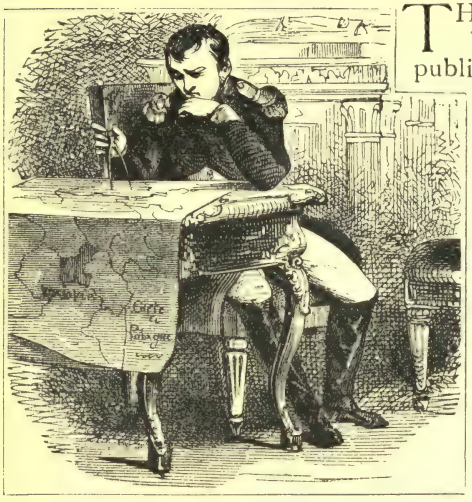
While the Directorial Government was thus weak and undecided at home, it was arrogant, rapacious, and tyrannical in its intercourse with foreign countries. In the winter of 1797 Republican agitations occurred in Rome and other parts of the States of the Church, which afforded the French Government an opportunity for despatching Berthier with an army to Rome. The Pope was deprived of his temporal power and ultimately carried off to France, and a Republican government was established, modelled on the French constitution (February, 1798). Genoa also received a democratic constitution, and, as the Ligurian Republic, was made subordinate to France, until it was finally annexed in 1805. Lucca forfeited, with its aristocratic constitution, its wealth of treasures; and when the king of Sardinia also signed the act of renunciation of Piedmont, when Naples succumbed to the victorious French army and submitted to the commands of the Directory, France was on the point of bringing under its sway the whole of the beautiful peninsula, which had been the object of ambition of so many French kings and the grave of so many brave warriors. The cowardly king Ferdinand IV. of Naples fled with his haughty wife Caroline, a daughter of Maria Theresa, to Sicily, having set fire to his own fleet, and abandoned the capital and the whole country to the victors.

About this time also the constitution of Switzerland was changed. For a long time the government of the different Cantons had been in the hands of a few patrician families, who refused the people any share in the administration. At last the inhabitants of Waadtland appealed to the French Government for protection, and finally procured their independence from the supremacy of Berne. As some French soldiers had been killed in the struggle, however, General Brune obtained the desired opportunity for occupying Berne, possessing himself of its wealthy treasures, and extorting large sums of money by war taxes and plunder, and ultimately establishing a Constitution formed after the model of the French government.

The Republic of Switzerland was declared dissolved (March, 1798), in order to make way for a single and indivisible Helvetian Republic, with five directors

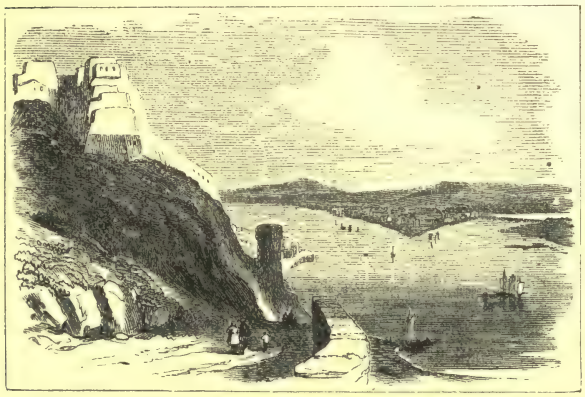
and two legislative councils. Geneva was added to the French territory, and Zurich, Lucerne, and other places were severely punished by pillage and extortion. In vain did the Catholic Cantons of the country take up arms to resist this decree; after a vigorous opposition and many bloody battles, they were conquered, and compelled to submit to the new arrangement.

The New Coalition War (1798–1799).—Its Origin.



THE success of the French arms, combined with the arrogance of the Republicans, induced most of the European powers to enter into a new alliance. Austria was concerned with regard to Italy; England feared danger to its foreign possessions, and owed a grudge to France, because the Directory in Paris had encouraged the agitation prevailing in Ireland. In Russia, since 1796, Katharine's only son Paul had possessed the crown; and he cherished the greatest hatred of the principles of the Revolution. Even the Sultan joined the Coalition when the bold Republicans threatened Turkey from Egypt and Syria. Prussia alone, where the feeble but upright Frederick William III. ascended the throne on the 16th of November, 1797, remained neutral, in spite of the efforts made by England and Russia to induce it to join the alliance.

Rastatt and Italy.



COBLENTZ AND EHRENBREITSTEIN.

THE capture of Ehrenbreitstein (January, 1799), the brave garrison of which was compelled to surrender by the French, formed the commencement of the fresh sanguinary war, which, however, soon took a turn unfavourable to France. In Germany Jourdan was defeated by the Archduke Charles near Osterach and Stockach, and compelled to retreat across the Rhine. This induced the French ambassadors who were conducting the peace negotiations at Rastatt, and who had made themselves unpopular by their arrogance, to obtain passports for their return home. But on leaving the town in the night they were attacked by some hussars, were robbed of their papers, and cruelly ill-treated. This violent proceeding excited general indignation, and afforded the Directory an

opportunity for inflaming the people with a desire for revenge. Affairs were still worse in Italy. While the commander-in-chief was among the glowing sands of Egypt with 40,000 men of the best disciplined troops, his Italian conquests vanished beneath the attacks of the Russian troops led by Suwaroff. In a few weeks the Russians, and the Austrians who were led by Kray, conquered the Cisalpine republic (1799), and the bloody defeat of the French in the battle of Novi (August 15), when the youthful general Joubert, intended



FRENCH ARMY IN THE ST. GOTHARD.

by the suspicious Directory to be the future rival of Napoleon, died a hero's death, completed the loss of Italy. France was now in a bad predicament, but the dissensions of the allies preserved it from the last extremity.

The Ligurian republic was also quickly dissolved, and after the retirement of the French a period of anarchy intervened, in which many cruelties were perpetrated.

Conflicts in Switzerland and Holland.—In Switzerland the French proved more successful in maintaining their position. Massena, a brave but cruel and avaricious general, fought with success against the Imperial field-marshal Hotze, a native Swiss, and pursued him to the Tyrol; while Lecourbe conquered the Engadine, and Lessoles marched into the Austrian territory. Massena's position became more precarious, however, when Suwaroff received orders to quit Italy and to unite his forces with the Austrians and a second Russian army under Korsakoff in Switzerland. With wonderful boldness Suwaroff crossed the impassable ice-mountains and Alps, to drive the French from their position at Zurich. On the Gotthard and the Devil's Bridge, battles were waged, both with nature and the enemy, which belong to the boldest deeds of warfare in the history of the world. On mountain-passes, which had hitherto only been accessible to single wayfarers, and on heights which an army had never crossed before, soldiers encamped, and battles were fought. But in spite of incredible efforts, they could not expel the French from Switzerland. Even before their union with the friendly troops, the quarrelsome Austrians and Russians succumbed to the assaults of the French in the battle of Zurich (September, 1799). On the capture of the town of Zurich, the preacher Lavater was slain by a French soldier. Suwaroff, who was at variance with the Imperial generals and the Vienna cabinet, returned home in December with the remains of his army, and died a few months afterwards of grief at the undeserved displeasure of his emperor. While in Italy and Switzerland the Austrians had impeded the success of the Russian arms by their perverse measures and their envy and avarice, the English also proved, when the Duke of York, in conjunction with the Russians, tried to drive the French under Brune out of Holland, and to re-instate the Stadtholder, that they also were not free from selfishness and love of gain. After the unskilful commander-in-chief had sacrificed the Russians to the enemy, he purchased safe retreat for himself and his men by a disgraceful capitulation. This proceeding so roused the indignation of the Emperor Paul against the coalition, that he withdrew from it, and some time afterwards entered into an alliance with Bonaparte.

Bonaparte in Egypt and Syria.

During these events, Napoleon led his army against Cairo. He conquered the Mamelukes in the battle of the Pyramids (21st July, 1798), and then advanced into Cairo; and after the capture of the French fleet at Aboukir by Nelson had deprived him of the hope of a speedy return, he set about establishing a new administration, system of taxation, etc. In spite, however, of the forbearance shown by Bonaparte and his soldiers towards the religious customs of the Mohammedans, and the outward deference paid to their priests, mosques, and ceremonies, fanaticism was kindled in the hearts of the Mussulmans, and rendered the supremacy of the Christians extremely detestable to them. A terrible insurrection took place in Cairo (21st October), which was only with difficulty repressed after upwards of six thousand Mamelukes were slain. In the beginning of the following year Napoleon proceeded to the conquest of Joppa, and then prepared to lay siege to St. Jean d'Acre. Here he sustained his first repulse. The Turks, who were lavishly provided with ammunition by the English naval commander, Sidney Smith, repelled all the attacks of the French; and at the same time a Turkish army threatened the European forces in the interior



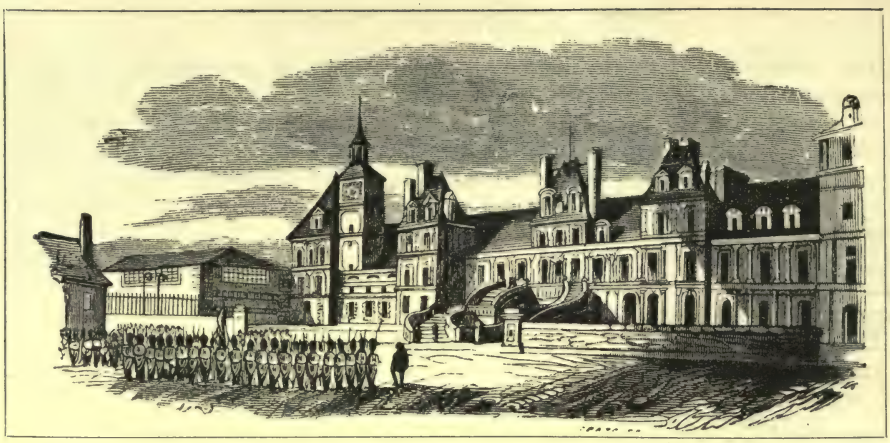
LORD NELSON.

of the country. When pestilence also broke out amongst the French troops, Bonaparte found himself compelled to leave St. Jean d'Acre, and after a great devastation, to make his retreat. The troops suffered from the most fearful hunger, and terrible were the dangers and hardships which beset them, all of which Napoleon shared with the commonest soldier of his army. The story that he incited the physician of the staff to poison with opium the plague-stricken soldiers who had to be left behind at Joppa, to which the latter replied, that "his vocation was to heal men, not to kill them," has been declared to be a slanderous invention of his enemies. In June (1799), Bonaparte again arrived at Cairo, and in the following month defeated at Aboukir a Turkish army three times stronger than his own. About a month later, having resigned the chief command into the hands of Kléber, he returned to France, where he was greeted with the acclamations of the people.

The 18th Brumaire.

The Directorial Government had lost all esteem and authority. The Executive Directors, among whom Siéyès replaced the Republican Reubel, were at variance with the Legislative Assembly of Five Hundred. The mishaps of the war, and the restrictions on the freedom of the press, were used by the opposition, headed by Napoleon's brother, Lucien Bonaparte, as grounds for attacks on the government. The exclusion of the brave La Reveillère-Lepeaux and two of his colleagues, in the so-called revolution of the 30th Prairial, increased the prevailing discontent. In the provinces the Royalists bestirred themselves; in Paris the Jacobins held meetings in the Riding School, and revived the old club under another form. The disasters in Italy were ascribed to the absence of Bonaparte, whom the Directory had banished to Egypt out of mere envy. The Government could count on no friends, and every one was convinced of the necessity of a change in the Constitution, when the news of Napoleon's landing directed all eyes towards that general. Soon after his arrival in Paris, Bonaparte, in conjunction with Siéyès and his brother Lucien, who was elected President of the Five Hundred, determined to overthrow the Directorial Constitution. With this end in view, he assured himself of the support of the troops and officers who were present in Paris, and then, through Lucien's agency, caused the sittings of the Government to be removed to St. Cloud, that the members of the Council might be placed in the power of the soldiers. The Directors were either initiated, like Siéyès and Roger Ducos, into the conspiracy, or resigned their offices voluntarily, or under compulsion.

At St. Cloud, Napoleon attempted first of all, by persuasion, to win over the deputies to his plans; but when this did not succeed, and the assembly of the Five Hundred overwhelmed him with threats and reproaches, he gave his grenadiers the command to clear the assembly hall with bayonets. The republicans, who met the danger courageously, were compelled at last to yield to superior force, and to make their escape through doors and windows. The exclusion of sixty-one members from the Council of Five Hundred, the formation of a Consulate Government, to which Siéyès, Roger Ducos, and Bonaparte were appointed, and the nomination of a commission of fifty persons, who during the adjournment of the sittings of the Council were to exercise the right of legislation, and to prepare the draft of a new constitution, formed the conclusion of this bold measure. The decree, which was issued two days later, in accordance with which thirty-seven of the most violent Jacobins were exiled, and twenty-two were banished to the west coast, was soon withdrawn.



THE CONSULATE.—1800–1804.

NEW CONSTITUTION, AND THE THREE CONSULS.—POWER OF BONAPARTE.—BATTLES OF MARENGO AND HOHENLINDEN.—TREATY OF LUNEVILLE.—ASSASSINATION OF THE EMPEROR PAUL OF RUSSIA.—THE PEACE OF AMIENS, 1802.—AFFAIRS IN EGYPT.—DEATH OF KLEBER.—SUCCESSES OF THE ENGLISH.—RENEWED WAR.—ST. DOMINGO.—INTERNAL AFFAIRS.—CONCORDAT WITH THE POPE.—CONSPIRACIES AGAINST BONAPARTE.—PREPARATIONS FOR THE EMPIRE.

CONSTITUTION OF THE CONSULATE.



THE new (fourth) Constitution, which was accepted by the votes of the whole nation, allowed the semblance of a republic to remain, but practically created a military monarchy, as it invested the First Consul with almost royal power. The essential conditions of the Constitution were the following: 1. That the Senate, consisting of 80 members, should possess the privilege of electing from the lists of names sent in from the departments the members of the legislative body, and the chief officials and judges. 2. That the legislative chamber, deprived of its right of initiative, should be divided into the Tribune, composed of 100 members, and the Legislative Body of 300 members. 3. That the Government should consist of three Consuls, chosen every ten years, Bonaparte, Cambaçérès, and Lebrun, the former to possess the chief power.

Marengo and Hohenlinden.—It is not to be doubted that the idea of being a peacemaker in the republic, and a supreme mediator between the different parties, had originated in the mind of Napoleon before he was carried away by the passion of ambition. After establishing the new Constitution, Napoleon

wrote with his own hand to the king of England a letter, full of high-sounding phrases, in which he offered the hand of peace, and sent a similar letter to the Emperor. But this unusual proceeding met with little response. A cold diplomatic reply spoke of the reinstatement of the Bourbons, and of a return to the old frontiers. The contrast between the apparent warmth and openness of Napoleon, and the studied coldness of the cabinets of London and Vienna, excited a storm of enthusiasm and warlike ardour among the fiery French people. From all sides brave soldiers gathered round the Consul, whom he formed into a powerful army and stationed in the neighbourhood of the Lake of Geneva, while the so-called reserve army, under Berthier, deceived the world, and excited the irony of the English. More fortunate was Napoleon in his endeavour to bring the Russian emperor over to his side. Wisely availing himself of Paul's predilection for soldiers, and his resentment against his selfish allies, who would not exchange the Russians who had been taken prisoners, Napoleon sent some thousands of these captives, newly clad and armed, without ransom money and under their own leaders, back to Russia, and by this means made such an impression on the capricious emperor, that he entered into correspondence with the Consul and favoured his enterprises against Austria and England. After the conclusion of these preparations, Napoleon hastened to Geneva, where he had an interview with Necker; and then, with the main army, undertook the marvellous expedition across the ice-covered St. Bernard (May 16–20, 1800), while other divisions of the army marched into Italy over the Simplon, St. Gotthard, and other passes. This bold undertaking, with its hardships and dangers, was worthy of the heroic times of Hannibal. Thus the French reached northern Italy quite unexpectedly at the very moment when their last possession, Genoa, had been surrendered to the Austrians by the brave generals Massena and Soult. This state of affairs was soon changed, however. Five days after the fall of Genoa the Austrians suffered a defeat at Montebello (June 9th), and shortly afterwards Napoleon gained the brilliant victory of Marengo (June 15th), when the Austrians were put to flight. The victory was complete, and the Vienna Cabinet hastened to save the remains of their army by the armed truce of Alessandria, and abandoned Lombardy for the second time. Desaix, one of the noblest men of the revolutionary period, died the death of a hero on the battlefield. To him and to the bold cavalry leader, Kellermann, belonged the honour of the day. At the same time an army under Moreau, Lecourbe, etc., had entered Swabia and Bavaria, defeated the Austrians at Stockach, Möskirch, and on the famous battlefield of Hochstädt and Blenheim (June 19th), and compelled them to agree to the armed truce of Parsdorf, which surrendered the south of Germany to the French as completely as the treaty of Alessandria had surrendered Italy. As, however, the Vienna cabinet hesitated to agree to a peace without the concurrence of England, the war was soon renewed. But Moreau's splendid victory in the bloody battle of Hohenlinden (Dec. 3rd), which opened to the French the way to Vienna, compelled the Austrians, in the peace of Luneville (February, 1801), to agree to the conditions of Campo Formio, and to recognise the valley of the Etsch and the Rhine as the boundary of the kingdom of France. The establishment of an Italian republic, under the presidency of Bonaparte, and the stipulation that the German princes and states who had incurred losses, should be indemnified by means of secularized church property and cession of land on the right bank of the Rhine, were the most important articles of the peace of Luneville. The closer fulfilment of the different stipulations made by Ger-

many, then ensued; and after many debates, the completion of the peace of Luneville.

Death of the Emperor Paul of Russia.—During these occurrences an important event had occurred in Russia. Paul's relationship to Austria and England had become hostile in the same proportion as his alliance with Bonaparte had taken a more friendly and intimate form. He once more had recourse to his mother's scheme, of breaking the naval supremacy of England by an armed neutral alliance with Denmark, Sweden, and Prussia, and sought in conjunction with the French Consul, to direct affairs in Italy to the advantage of Austria. As however most of the proceedings of this singular monarch proved that he was unaccountable for his actions, some of his nobles, who were offended at his wild caprices and arbitrary measures, or were menaced by his gloomy suspicions, formed a conspiracy, at the head of which was the powerful Count Pahlen, minister of police and governor of St. Petersburg. In consequence of this plot the Emperor Paul was surprised in his sleeping room by Suboff, Orloff, Benningsen and others, and when he refused the demanded resignation of his crown, the conspirators cruelly strangled him with a scarf, and then proclaimed his son Alexander emperor (12th of March, 1801). The murderers obtained rewards and honours for the deed, and in the higher circles the day of the emperor's death was celebrated as a "day of renown and satisfaction." The reconciliation with England, and the dissolution of the neutral alliance, was the next consequence of this catastrophe; a good understanding was nevertheless maintained with France, and was strengthened by a formal treaty of peace (8th Oct., 1801).

The Peace of Amiens.



AFTER Spain and Portugal had also concluded peace with France, England alone among the powers of the great Coalition remained under arms. This energetic island, with its free constitution, and its inexhaustible wealth, had gained in power by war by sea and in the colonies, in the same degree that France had increased its influence on the continent. But here also the people longed for peace, especially since the Russian emperor Paul had renewed the alliance of armed neutrality with Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark, in consequence of which England was involved in a war with the Danes, and compelled to maintain a fleet of war in the Sound. Negotiations were commenced which for a long time led to no result, because no agreement could be arrived at with regard to Egypt; only when the English were convinced that neither the British land army nor the clumsy Turkish troops were in a position to overcome the practised war troops of the French in the Nile country, did the English cabinet consent to an arrangement with regard to Egypt, and then, after a change of ministry had taken place, agree to the unfavourable peace of Amiens (27th March, 1802), in which it was stipulated that the chief part of the foreign conquests should be surrendered.

Egypt.—After Bonaparte's return, the discontented Kleber, whom the Consul had generously installed in the post of commander-in-chief, in spite

of the old feud between them, concluded a treaty with the English commander Sidney Smith and the Turks, for a free withdrawal of the army. When, however, the English government would not confirm the treaty, but insisted on the French soldiers being made prisoners of war, Kleber reluctantly broke off all negotiations, vanquished the Turks in the battle of Heliopolis with a six times smaller army, and again conquered the capital city, Cairo (June, 1800). But on the day of the battle of Marengo he was struck down in the garden of his palace by the dagger of a fanatical Mohammedan. Kleber's successor, the incapable Menou, was only able to maintain his position against the English troops, commanded by the brave general Abercromby, with great difficulty, and not till after the death of the victorous Abercromby in the battle of Canopus, was a treaty at last arranged, in consequence of which the French troops, numbering 24,000 men, were carried off with their arms and ammunition in English ships to France. In the peace of Amiens, the English, who had given back to the order of St. John the island of Malta, which they had taken from the French, promised that Egypt, as well as the republic of the Ionian islands, should return under the supremacy of the Porte.



ABERCROMBY.

Fresh Discord.

THE peace of Amiens was concluded on the part of England with great precipitation; for which reason the press raised its voice loudly against it, and also adopted a hostile tone against Bonaparte. The Protectorate which the French government had adopted, not only over Italy, but over Holland and Switzerland, was represented as an intolerable tyranny. These attacks on Bonaparte excited his great displeasure, and the *Moniteur*, the French official paper, replied in an indignant tone, which became more and more bitter as England delayed with the evacuation of Malta. Finally war was again declared against France by England, and the return of Pitt to the ministry, at the head of which he remained till his death (1806), was regarded as a proof that the English government was determined to attack the new military ruler and his despotic protectorate over the neighbouring states, as energetically as it had formerly done the Revolution.

This new war proved a hindrance to the French government in its reconquest of the island of St. Domingo. In consequence of the declaration of human rights and the liberation of the slaves in this French colony, terrible disturbances had broken out. The mulattos and negroes had risen up against the white planters, had demanded equality of rights, and had at last established a negro republic under the crafty and enterprising Toussaint l'Ouverture. This popular leader was, however, ultimately taken prisoner and carried off to France, where he soon died.

Internal Affairs.

THE new court and the Concordat.—Bonaparte's original endeavour to reconcile the old with the new, and to combine the conquests of the Revolution with the institutions of royalty, was wise and praiseworthy ; but all too soon he allowed himself to be carried away by the predilection of his followers for monarchical forms of government, and to attempt an absolute restoration of the old conditions, customs, and usages. At the court of the First Consul in the Tuileries, the fashions, modes, and forms of the old etiquette, and the elegance of royalty reappeared. Bonaparte's vain, but affectionate wife, Josephine, her children Eugène and Hortense Beauharnais, her sisters, especially Pauline, and her brother-in-law Murat, were remarkable for their personal attractions, and aided by their social qualities in forwarding the aims which Napoleon had in view.

Many royalist emigrants now returned home ; and Madame de Stael, Necker's daughter, gathered together, as in former times, a circle of cultured and famous men, who assembled in her salons. One of the first cares of the Consul was the restoration of Christian worship in the French churches. After he had abolished the Republican festivals, and had again introduced the respect for Sunday, he entered into negotiations with the Romish court which led to the conclusion of the Concordat. As he was equally averse to the restoration of the old Gallican Church, with its synods and proud independence, and to the continuance of the democratic clergy of the revolutionary period, he desired to establish a state of things in which the French Church would sink to the position of a servant of the Pope and of the temporal sovereign.

The Concordat, which had been arranged in conjunction with the Papal minister, Consalvi, and which was celebrated on Easter-day by a public thanksgiving festival, contained the following resolutions :—Ten archbishops and fifty bishops were to be appointed and paid by the government, and confirmed by the Pope. All ecclesiastics were to renounce their posts, but could be reinstalled. Those who had been excluded were to be again admitted into the bosom of the Church, and to receive a salary from the State until their death.

The confiscated Church property was to remain in the hands of the present possessors, and the number of festival days was limited. The monarchical State obtained great power through the transfer of the system of education to the temporal government. By this means, as all teachers and educational institutions were dependent on the State, the latter obtained the same influence over the intellectual tendency of the people as had formerly been possessed by the Church.

Conspiracies.

NAPOLEON, like all men accustomed to military discipline, was of a despotic nature. He limited the political rights of the citizens, persecuted the Jacobins, and placed his confidence in his guard and his police. These persecutions increased when a bold Corsican adventurer and the talented sculptor, Cerrachi, formed the design of overthrowing the First Consul, but were discovered by Fouché, and paid the penalty of the conspiracy with their lives. Napoleon's life also was

attempted by the explosion of a so-called infernal machine as he was driving to the opera-house, when he had a narrow escape. In consequence of this outrage, a hundred and thirty suspected Jacobins were sentenced to transportation. More dangerous and ominous, however, were the conspiracies against Bonaparte, when, by the voice of the people, the consulship was made over to him for life, and it fell to his lot to appoint his successor. The Bourbons, whose last hopes were destroyed, now strained every nerve to overthrow Napoleon, and obtained the assistance of the bold George Cadoudal and the vigorous General Pichegru. These entered into negotiations with Moreau, but were discovered and imprisoned, with forty conspirators. Even before their fate was decided, Napoleon caused the Duc d'Enghien, who had been represented to him as the soul of all the royalist conspiracies, to be brought in haste to Paris, and sentenced to death (15th March, 1804). This deed excited general indignation throughout Europe, and silenced the laudatory tongues of Napoleon's admirers. The romantic poet Chateaubriand, the author of the famous work, "Genius of Christendom," which had paved the way for the return to religious worship and the arrangement of the Concordat, now renounced his official post, and repaired to Switzerland.

These conspiracies afforded Napoleon the opportunity for carrying out his long-cherished plan,—the establishment of a hereditary monarchy. Through the machinations of his blind adherents, he caused the proposition to be brought forward in the tribune that the hereditary Imperial dignity should be conferred on the First Consul, which was then confirmed by the senate and ratified by the votes of the nation. While, therefore, the public mind was still in a state of painful excitement in consequence of the bloody executions, Napoleon I. was proclaimed Emperor of the French, and at the end of the year was solemnly anointed by the Pope in the Cathedral of Nôtre Dame (2nd Dec., 1804). He himself, however, placed the crown upon his own head, and also on his wife, Josephine, who knelt before him.

The new emperor surrounded his throne with a brilliant court pageant, and though he himself always maintained a military simplicity, the members of his family were entitled princes and princesses. Richly paid court officials, flatterers, and spies again appeared in numbers, and the people once more forgot, amid festivities and pageantry, the forfeiture of its rights and liberties. Carnot and Lafayette alone refused homage to the new sovereign, and therefore obtained no reward in dignities or titles. The old calendar was introduced, and all the republican regulations and institutions were gradually abolished.



THE FRENCH EMPIRE.

A NEW COALITION.—CAMPAIGN OF 1805.—AUSTERLITZ.—PEACE OF PRESBURG.—CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE.—WAR WITH PRUSSIA, 1806.—BATTLE OF JENA.—CAMPAIGN OF 1807.—EYLAU AND FRIEDLAND.—TREATY OF TILSIT.—POWER OF THE FRENCH EMPEROR.—THE AFFAIRS OF TURKEY.

THE THIRD COALITION WAR. THE NEW COALITION.



WHILE the English had availed themselves of the fresh outbreak of war with France to seize upon Dutch and French ships, Bonaparte despatched his troops, under Mortier, to the Weser, in order to occupy the Electorate of Hanover, which belonged to the king of England. The people and the army were resolute to defend their country, but the self-seeking nobility and the cowardly officials preferred a disgraceful capitulation to an honourable, though possibly unsuccessful, conflict. After concluding the treaty of Suhlingen (June, 1803), the arms, ammunition, and horses of the Hanoverians fell into the hands of the French, who now occupied the land with their troops. By the middle of July there was no longer a Hanoverian army, and the unfortunate people were abandoned, undefended, to the foreign despotism.

The English minister, Pitt, who was impressed with the idea that there could be no peace for England and Europe so long as the dangerous theories of the revolution were current in France and might be asserted by a despotic,

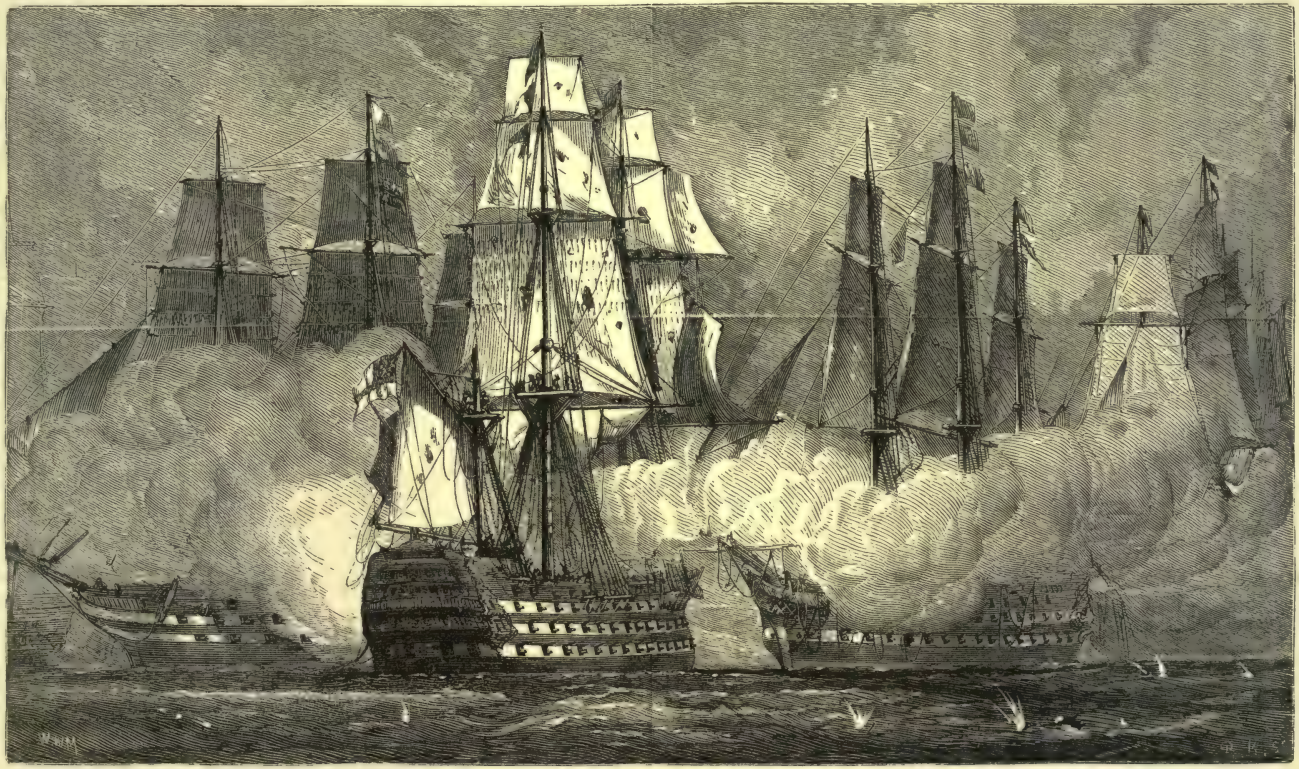
military emperor, now again rejected the peace proffered by Napoleon, and entered into negotiations with Russia for the formation of a new coalition. The Emperor Alexander, who was jealous and apprehensive of Napoleon's growing power in Italy, where he had been declared king, and crowned with the iron crown of Lombardy at Milan (March, 1805), and also of his influence in Germany and Spain, entered into an alliance with England to protect Europe from the Emperor's rapacity and love of power, and to compel France to retire to its former frontiers. Soon Austria, Sweden, and even Naples joined the coalition, while Prussia remained neutral.

The Austerlitz Campaign.

While the attention of the whole of Europe was directed towards the west coast of France, where Napoleon was making great naval preparations, having also collected a large army at Boulogne, in order, as it was imagined, to effect a landing on the English coasts, he was quietly preparing his plans for the memorable campaign of 1805. Assured of the assistance of most of the south German princes, he in the autumn crossed the Rhine with seven divisions of his army, commanded by generals Ney, Lannes, Marmont, Soult, Murat, etc., in order to attack the Austrians, who had marched into Bavaria, and proceeded to occupy Munich; while Bernadotte, without regard for the neutrality of Prussia, advanced towards the Danube through the territory of the Brandenburg Margravate of Anspach, and by so doing gave such dire offence to the vacillating Frederick William III., that he decided to join the Coalition. Napoleon marched into Swabia. The rulers of Baden, Wurtemberg, and Bavaria strengthened with reinforcements the army of the powerful enemy, from whose favour they had as much to hope as they had reason to fear his anger. The Dukes of Hesse, Nassau, etc., took a similar course. By October the French were already masters of both banks of the Danube; they then occupied Augsburg and Munich, while the Austrian commander, Mack, with incredible short-sightedness, tarried with his army in the fortress of Ulm, and allowed the enemy to surround him. Then an incredible occurrence took place. After an encounter, in which Ney proved victorious, at Elchingen (14th Oct.), Mack was entirely shut in at Ulm, and was cut off from the main army. Helpless and despairing of deliverance, the incapable general entered into negotiations with the victor, which ended in the disgraceful Capitulation of Ulm (Oct. 20).

In consequence of this dishonourable treaty, 23,000 Austrians and 18 generals became prisoners of war. Overcome with shame, the brave warriors marched past Napoleon, laid their weapons and banners at his feet, and surrendered a number of cannons. Too late was it perceived at Vienna that general Mack was not fitted for his high post, and he was deprived by the sentence of a court martial of his office and honours.

The contemporaneous naval victory of the English at Trafalgar (21st Oct., 1805), which resulted in the loss of the whole French fleet, lessened, however, Napoleon's joy at his unheard-of success. For a generation there was now no French naval power; and the fleet, which was to have helped to conquer England, drifted in wrecks on the Andalusian coast, and the British dominion over the sea was without a rival. But the delight of the English was not without a cloud, for their renowned hero, Nelson, had perished. His last great signal to the fleet, "England expects every man to do his duty," produced a wonderful effect.

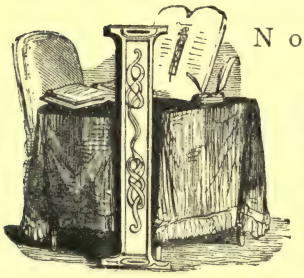


THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR.

The catastrophe of Ulm also decided the fate of the Italian campaign. In spite of the bravery with which the Archduke Charles upheld the honour of the Austrian arms against Massena, near Caldiero, on the 30th of October, the Imperial troops were compelled to retreat across the Isonzo, and abandon northern Italy to the enemy.

While Frederick William III. of Prussia, indignant at the high-handed violation of his neutrality, and urged on by the patriotic war-party, permitted the Russians and the Swedes to pass through his dominions to Hanover, renewed a league of perpetual friendship with the weak and susceptible Emperor Alexander, and then despatched his minister Haugwitz to Napoleon with a threatening demand that he should restore the former treaties in Germany, Italy, Holland, and Switzerland as the basis of peace—the French advanced, amid bloody battles and conflicts with the Austrians and Russians, along the Danube towards the Austrian states. The troops of the Austrian general, Merveldt, were scattered, while Mortier sustained great losses at the hands of the Russian general, Kutusoff, near Dürrenstein. But while the bloody battle of Dürrenstein, fought on the 11th of November, proved to the French that they had in the Russians enemies who were as brave as they were warlike and circumspect, the ease with which Murat possessed himself of the capital, Vienna, and the foolishness of the Prince of Auersperg, who allowed himself to be duped by the bold cunning of the French commander, filled the invaders with the greatest confidence. The indecision and faint-heartedness of the Emperor Francis, as well as the want of union among the Austrians and Russians, facilitated the victory of the French, who, laden with an immense booty of war, pursued the Russo-Austrian army amid continual conflicts to Moravia. In that province, not far from Brunn, was fought the murderous battle of Austerlitz, on the 2nd of December, 1805, when the winter's sun shone down on the most tremendous and brilliant victory that had yet crowned the arms of Napoleon.

THE PEACE OF PRESBURG AND ITS RESULTS.



IN order to be freed from the presence of the great army of the enemy, who oppressed the land with their rapacity and extortion, the Austrian government hastened to conclude with Napoleon the Peace of Presburg, although by this capitulation important possessions, such as the Tyrol and the Venetian territory, were taken from the empire. The crowns of Naples and Holland were conferred on members of the Bonapartist family, and the German Empire was placed under the immediate influence of the French despot, with whom the courts of Baden, Wurtemberg, and Bavaria were also connected by the ties of relationship.

The Confederation of the Rhine.—Through the elevation of the Electors of Bavaria and Wurtemberg to sovereign dignity, which was one result of the Peace of Presburg, the constitution of the German Empire was already practically dissolved. Napoleon therefore conceived the idea of withdrawing the South and West of Germany from Austrian influence, and binding it to himself by the establishment of a Confederation of the Rhine. The selfishness of most of the German princes, and the prevalent dread of the powerful ruler

who always held the fortunes of war in his hand, rendered it easy for the crafty Talleyrand and the Elector Archchancellor Charles Theodore of Dalberg to induce a number of princes and States to separate from the German Empire and to enter into a close connection with France. On the 12th of July, 1806, in Paris, there was signed the basis of the treaty, on the strength of which Napoleon, as the protector of the Confederation, recognised the independent sovereignty of the different members with regard to taxation, legislation, etc., in consideration of an agreement to place a certain number of troops at the Emperor's disposal. Dalberg, who was appointed Prince Primate, was chosen as Napoleon's representative in the League. By means of increase of territory and the arbitrary subordination of many small States under the supremacy of the more important princes, in whose borders they were included, the power of the members of the League increased to a significant extent. The Emperor Francis II., who had already shown his slight confidence in the maintenance of the Empire by transferring the Imperial dignity to the Austrian hereditary States, resigned the Imperial crown of Germany, assumed the title of Francis I., Emperor of Austria, and withdrew all his States from the German Imperial Confederation (6th Aug., 1806). Thus the Holy Roman Empire of the German nation was dissolved. Through internal dissensions and feeble separate governments, it had long ago dwindled to a shadow. Its most powerful members were now the vassals of a foreign despot.

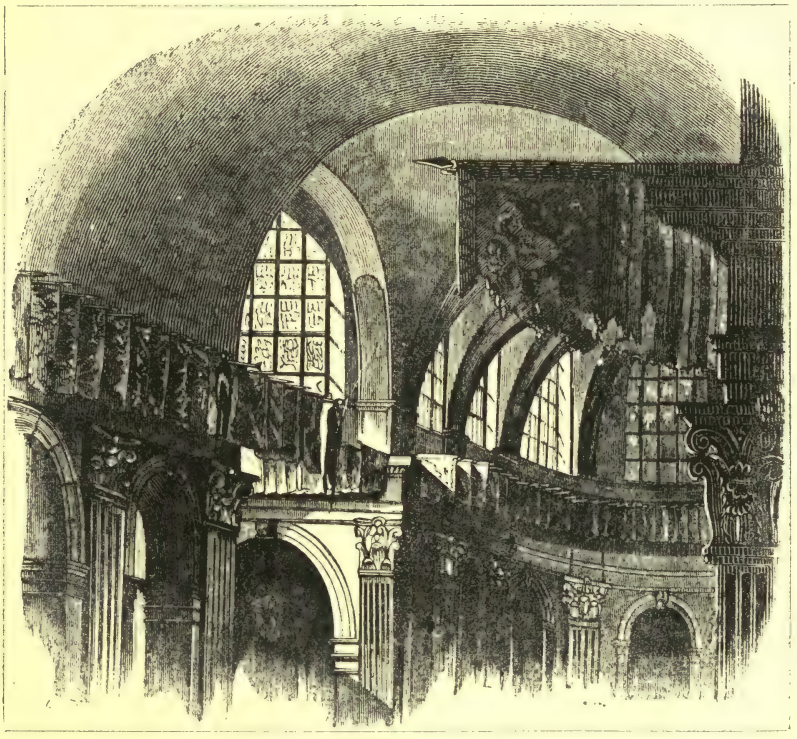
The Prussian War (1806).



WHILE the French Emperor was filled with resentment on account of the wavering attitude of Prussia and the indecision of its peace-loving king, two causes widened the already existing breach, and excited in the Prussians a feeling of exasperation which led to the declaration of war. Before the Confederation had been concluded, Prussia had contemplated entering into a "close alliance" with Saxony and Hesse-Cassel, to protect its own existence and independence. This project was prevented by Napoleon, who originated the scheme of a "North-German Union," in order to remove beforehand all objections to the Confederation of the Rhine. Scarcely, however, was the Union concluded, when French diplomacy was directed towards thwarting the efforts of the Prussian league in every way possible. The Berlin cabinet discovered that Napoleon, on renewing the peace negotiations with the English ministry, had held out a prospect of the surrender of the Electorate of Hanover, which had been ceded to Prussia, without conferring with the Prussian Government on the matter. The destruction of the French fleet in the tremendous conflict off Cape Trafalgar, near Cadiz, on the 21st of October, 1805, when the immortal Nelson closed his glorious career with a hero's death, had once more convinced the Emperor that, in spite of all his victories on land, he could not overcome the naval power of England; and the death of Pitt, which brought the liberal-minded Fox into the ministry, filled him with the hope of a treaty of peace. But before the negotiations were con-

cluded Fox died, and the war party again obtained the upper hand. Prussia now brought forward the so-called Ultimatum, in which the evacuation by the French of South Germany was demanded; and when this request was scornfully rejected, all further negotiations with France were broken off.

Jena.—While the final answer of France was being awaited at Berlin, and the preparations for war were idly carried on under the delusive hope of peace, the French troops under Napoleon were already in the heart of Thuringia and Saxony; the elector, after some resistance, having formed an alliance with Prussia. Even the first battle, near Saalfeld, on October 10th, was decided against Prussia; but terrible and disastrous was the defeat of the army commanded by the old Duke of Brunswick in the great double



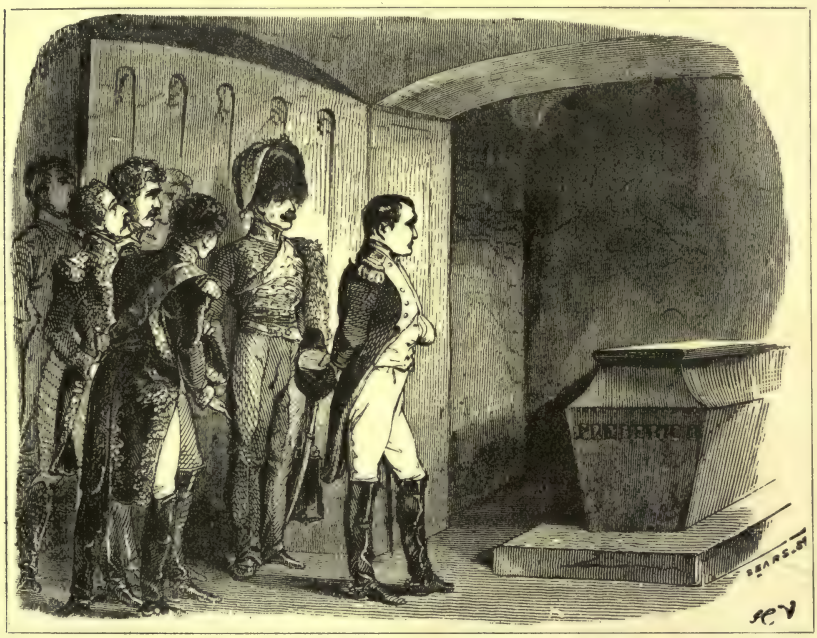
FRENCH FLAGS SUSPENDED IN NOTRE DAME.

battle of Jena and Auerstädt (October 14th, 1806), which decided the fate of the countries between the Rhine and the Elbe. As no precautions had been taken for a retreat, the armies separated into several divisions, and each became the prey of the rapidly advancing conqueror. On the 17th of October Duke Eugene of Wurtemberg experienced a defeat near Halle, which entirely scattered the reserve army under his command; and the old Duke of Hohenlohe, who, after a brave struggle, retired with the main army along by-ways to Magdeburg, was obliged with his twelve thousand men to lay down his arms at Prenzlow (October 28th), and to surrender his wearied and hungry troops as prisoners of war. No further resistance was now attempted. The crossing of the Elbe by the Duke of York, the spirited attitude of Prince Augustus, and, above all, Blücher's advance on Mecklenburg, and the battle at

Lübeck, were the only gleams of light in this disastrous period. Thirteen days after the battle of Jena, Napoleon marched into Berlin and possessed himself of the supplies of powder and weapons.

From Berlin the victorious Emperor issued his decrees, by which the North of Germany was brought into even greater subjection than the South. The elector of Hesse was compelled to abandon his army and country to the enemy, and to make his escape to Prague. The wounded and sightless Duke of Brunswick took refuge on Danish soil. Mecklenburg and Oldenburg were occupied ; Jever and East Friesland were united with Holland ; the Hanseatic towns, as well as Leipzig, were burdened with heavy war-levies ; and the treasures of art and trophies of former victories were carried off from all the provinces.

The Elector of Saxony, whose troops had fought with the Prussian army at



NAPOLEON AT THE TOMB OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.

Jena, alone experienced lenient treatment from the conqueror. The Saxon prisoners were set at liberty, and the elector was granted a favourable peace, and, adorned with the royal title, joined the Confederation of the Rhine in common with the other Saxon dukes (December, 1806). After that, Frederick Augustus, unfortunately for himself and for his people, felt bound by the ties of gratitude to Napoleon.

Charles Augustus, of Saxe-Weimar, had distinguished himself as a Prussian general at Jena, and on the return march, and had consequently excited the displeasure of Napoleon ; but the dignified and courageous attitude with which the duchess met the victorious Emperor made a great impression on him, and induced him to consent to pardon the duke, and to allow him to retain his sovereignty on condition that he would quit his army and recall his troops. The king of Prussia had first escaped to Graudenz,

and then to Königsberg, whence he sought in vain to make peace with the conqueror. Napoleon's demands increased with his success, and Frederick William was compelled of necessity to continue the war with his wrathful opponent, who, in his rude and blunt behaviour did not even spare the queen, "Prussia's Helena."



POLISH LANCERS.

EYLAU.—FRIEDLAND.—TILSIT.

IN his extremity the king turned to his friend Alexander, who, indignant that Napoleon, as the ally of the Porte, had sought to oppose Russia's designs on Moldavia and Wallachia, immediately despatched two Russian armies under Benningsen, Buxhowden, etc., to East Prussia, to prevent the French from crossing the Vistula. Napoleon then issued his appeal to the Poles, in which he summoned that injured nation to come forth and do battle for their liberty and independence. Inspired by the thought that the old kingdom of Poland would again be called into existence, the patriotic Poles immediately allied themselves with the French Emperor, who promised them liberation from their heavy yoke and revenge on their adversaries. On the 2nd of January, 1807, Napoleon marched into Warsaw, amid the acclamations of the multitude; but only too soon did the people discover that the foreign conqueror, whose soldiers they fed and clothed, and for whom their bravest warriors marched into the field, was more intent on the satisfaction of his ambition than on the reorganization of their kingdom. He enriched his military nobility with their property; but the kingdom of Poland never came into existence again.

Murderous battles were fought on the banks of the Vistula, and torrents of blood were shed at Pultusk and Morungen. But the master-blow was struck in the battle of Eylau (February 8th, 1807), when the warlike ardour of the French and Russians, and the courageous attitude of the Prussians under the brave and resolute Lestocq, resulted in a battle which, for loss of life, compares with the bloodiest annals of the world's history. Upwards of 60,000 dead and wounded covered the wide snowy plains of the battle-field. Both parties claimed the victory, and the exhaustion was so great that the war was

discontinued for four months. The king of Prussia was now anxious for peace; and when the fortresses on the Oder fell into the hands of the French, when Danzig, deprived of help from without, was compelled to surrender to Marshal Lefebvre, and when the Emperor of Russia, misled by evil counsellors, appeared to desire a reconciliation with Napoleon, the king lost all confidence in a successful issue of the war. Therefore, after the French had gained a brilliant victory in the battle of Friedland (June 14th, 1807), and had invested Königsberg, and threatened the Russian frontiers, the allied monarchs deemed it advisable to consent to the peace of Tilsit, in July, in spite of its oppressive conditions. The two Emperors met on a raft, on the Niemen, to arrange the particulars of the treaty.



ALEXANDER I. OF RUSSIA.

By this peace Frederick William lost the larger half of his States; he was compelled to consent to the surrender of all the countries between the Rhine and the Elbe, to agree to the establishment of a dukedom of Warsaw, under the supremacy of the King of Saxony, and to the elevation of Danzig with the surrounding district into a free State. The territory ceded by Prussia, with the electorate of Hesse, Brunswick, and South Hanover, were united by Napoleon into a new kingdom of Westphalia, with the capital Cassel; and his youngest brother, Jerome, was appointed king.

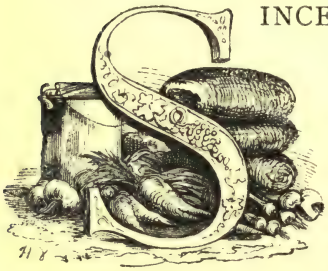


NAPOLEON AND ALEXANDER PROCEEDING TO THE RAFT AT TILSIT.

Turkey.—In the peace of Tilsit the Danubian countries (Moldavia and Wallachia) were given back to the Porte. The grand Sultan, Selim III. (1789-1807), endeavoured to permit the conversion of Turks to Christianity, and introduced many reforms which were disliked by the Mohammedan zealots. An

insurrection at last took place; and, overcome with terror, the childless Sultan relinquished his power in favour of his nephew, Mustapha IV. (1807), who, by the removal of all the innovations, pacified the rebellion. Mustapha's reign was not, however, of long duration. Beiraktar, Pasha of Rustchuk, an adherent of Selim, rose in insurrection, marched into the capital, and stormed the seraglio; but his intention of reinstating Selim as Sultan led to the murder of the latter by Mustapha. Beiraktar revenged this bloody deed by the murder of all the counsellors of Mustapha and the deposition of the Sultan. His brother, Mahmud II. (1808-39), became the ruler of the faithful, and Beiraktar, as grand vizier, restored Selim's reforms; but by so doing provoked a fresh insurrection of the janissaries, who overcame him and his troops after the bravest resistance. After the murder of the former Sultan Mustapha, Mahmud consented to revive the old Turkish Constitution, and thus saved his throne. The close alliance of Napoleon and Alexander after the meeting at Erfurt, led to a league between the Porte and England. Soon afterwards there arose a three years' bloody war between Russia and Turkey with regard to the possession of the Danubian countries, which, through the mediation of England, was concluded by the peace of Bukarest (May, 1812), at the very moment when Napoleon had raised all Europe in arms against Russia. In this peace the Pruth was declared the boundary stream between the two kingdoms.

The Assembly of Princes at Erfurt.



SINCE the peace of Tilsit, the liberty and independence of Europe had been threatened on three sides—by France, Russia, and England. Alexander of Russia endeavoured to increase his dominions in the south against Turkey and in the north-west against Sweden, while Napoleon attempted conquests in the Pyrenean Peninsula, and England ruled the sea as despotically as Napoleon governed the Continent. Since the interview of Napoleon with Alexander, at the great meeting of princes at Erfurt (27th of September, 1808), where the whole pageant of European power was unfolded, and where four kings and four-and-thirty German princes met together to render homage to the all-powerful ruler, Europe had been in danger of falling partly under French, partly under Russian supremacy. Strengthened by the friendship of Russia, Napoleon now directed his whole animosity against the indomitable island. The notorious blockade regulation, the "Berlin decree" of the year 1806, which forbade all commercial intercourse with England, and commanded all British merchandise to be captured, was the commencement of that oppressive Continental system which the English ministry, the Duke of Portland, Canning, Castlereagh, etc., met by issuing the order that any neutral ship which sailed from a harbour belonging to France or her allies, might be captured.

Events in Scandinavia.—King Gustavus IV. of Sweden, who had previously carried on war with the French in conjunction with Prussia and Russia, did not enter into the peace of Tilsit, but, supported by subsidies from England, continued the struggle alone. Impressed by the sanctity of the royal office, he denied the Imperial title to "General Bonaparte," who had risen to be ruler of France by the might of the sword, and not by the grace of God.

Under the influence of religious fanaticism, he believed himself appointed by Providence to reinstate the Bourbons and to overthrow the "apocalyptic animal." When Prussia and Russia concluded peace with the usurper, he dismissed their ambassadors from Stockholm, and by this means brought down on his people untold misfortune. The French conquered Stralsund and the island of Rügen in February, 1807, and took from the Swedes their last possessions in Germany; while the Russians penetrated into Finland and easily gained possession of this favourably situated country. The English now offered to send their fleet to the protection of Denmark; but this suggestion was indignantly declined by the king. An English fleet then appeared in the Sound, bombarded Copenhagen from the 2nd to the 5th of September, 1807, did great damage to the town, and carried off the Danish vessels. This breach of international justice produced such strong feeling in Denmark that the Crown Prince Frederick, who was reigning in the name of his insane father, entered into a close alliance with France, and declared war on the English and their ally, the king of Sweden. The other powers also took up a position hostile to England, and Gustavus IV. of Sweden remained the only British ally. The Russians were already approaching the capital, and the Swedish frontiers were already threatened by the Danes, when a conspiracy was formed, in consequence of which Gustavus was imprisoned, and was compelled to resign his throne. A hastily assembled diet then declared that Gustavus IV. and his descendants had forfeited the crown, and proclaimed his uncle, Charles XIII., of Sudermania, king. This revolution was quickly followed by a peace with Russia, Denmark, and France.

To the Russians Sweden made over Finland and some islands, while it got back from France its Pomeranian possessions. The choice of a successor to the throne, rendered necessary by the advanced age of the childless king, fell ultimately on Bernadotte, who had won great favour during the Prussian war by his humane treatment of the Swedish troops. He was declared successor to the Swedish throne (August, 1810), and after joining the Lutheran Church, was adopted by Charles XIII.





THE PENINSULAR, AUSTRIAN, AND RUSSIAN WARS, 1808–1812.

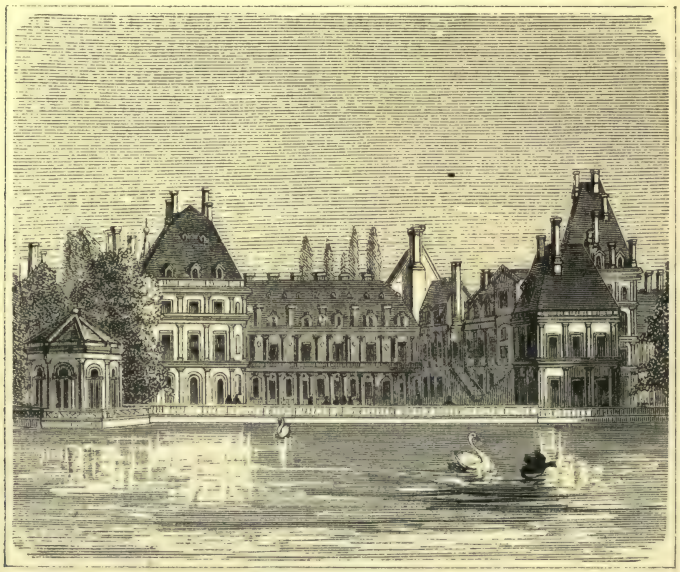
AFFAIRS OF THE PENINSULA, PORTUGAL.—PROCEEDINGS AT BAYONNE.—CARLOS IV., PRINCE FERDINAND, AND GODOY.—THE PENINSULAR WAR.—BAYLEN.—ROLICA AND VIMIERO.—CONVENTION OF CINTRA.—SARAGOSSA.—SIR JOHN MOORE'S DISASTER.—TALAVERA.—SALAMANCA.—VITTORIA.—ADVANCE INTO FRANCE.—NAPOLEON AND THE POPE.—WAR OF 1809, WITH AUSTRIA.—HOFER AND THE TYROL.—MAGDEBURG.—VICTORY OF WAGRAM.—TREATY OF SCHÖNBRUNN.—NAPOLEON'S DIVORCE.—MARRIAGE WITH MARIA LOUISA.—WAR WITH RUSSIA, 1812.—SMOLENSK.—BATTLE OF BORODINO.—BURNING OF MOSCOW.—DISASTROUS RETREAT.—DESTRUCTION OF THE FRENCH ARMY.

EVENTS IN THE PYRENEAN PENINSULA, PORTUGAL.

NAPOLEON'S efforts were now directed to the subjugation of the Pyrenean Peninsula, and to gaining possession of the still unconquered States in Italy. The refusal of the Portuguese government to renounce its alliance with England afforded the Emperor the desired opportunity for despatching an army, under Marshal Junot, into Portugal, with the connivance of the all-powerful Spanish minister, Godoy. The court at Lisbon did not await the arrival of the enemy, but immediately escaped with all its treasures, in English ships, to Brazil; when Junot, who was appointed Duke of Abrantes, obtained possession of the capital and of the whole country, imposed heavy war-taxes, and declared, in the name of his sovereign, that "the House of Braganza had ceased to reign" (February, 1808).

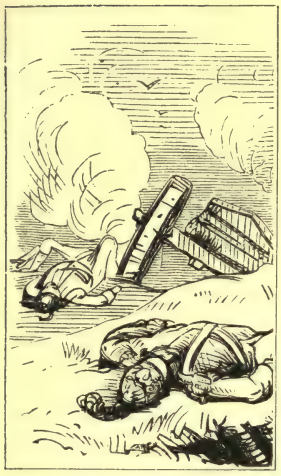
The Game of Intrigue at Bayonne.—In the Treaty of Fontainebleau, the dishonourable Godoy, who, through the unbounded weakness of Charles IV., had become the supreme head of the administration, and the practical ruler

of Spain, delivered his country entirely into the hands of Napoleon. The East and West of Spain were already occupied by 100,000 French soldiers, when the intriguer Godoy, apprehensive of these warlike preparations, and trembling before the wrath of the people, formed the design of escaping with the court to America. A popular insurrection, however, broke out at Madrid. The palace of the hated Prince of Peace was plundered, and he himself was threatened with death (March, 1808). Terrified at the danger which beset his favourite, the weak king, Charles IV., endeavoured to pacify the popular wrath by resigning the throne in favour of his eldest son, Ferdinand, who, as the enemy of Godoy, was beloved by the people. Napoleon, however, who desired to make Spain a feudal kingdom for his family, commenced the formation of a scheme for the overthrow of this arrangement. In compliance with his invitation, the old royal pair, the Prince of Peace, and Ferdinand, met together for a personal interview at Bayonne, where the weak-minded Charles IV. allowed himself to be persuaded to withdraw his resignation of the throne, but only to renounce it again both for himself and his descendants in favour of Napoleon and his family. The irresolute Ferdinand was also induced to consent to this piece of diplomatic strategy, and lived henceforward in France, in the enjoyment of an annuity. Napoleon then caused his brother Joseph to be declared King of Spain (June 6th, 1808), and endeavoured by a liberal form of government to win the good graces of the people ; but a terrible insurrection at Madrid proved that the nation would not submit so easily to foreign despotism as the impotent royal house.



FONTAINEBLEAU.

The Peninsular War.



EVEN before Joseph Bonaparte, after yielding the kingdom of Naples to his brother-in-law Murat, had made his triumphant entry into Madrid, the people had already given evidence of their hatred of the new order of things by the establishment of juntas in the most important towns, and by bloody rebellions against the French. With astonishment did Europe behold the unaccustomed sight of a national war, extending from Spain to Portugal, which could not be repressed by Napoleon's brave warriors. It is true that Bessières gained a brilliant victory over the undisciplined native troops at Medina del Rio-Secco on the 14th of July, 1808, and it appeared as though even the resistance of the Spanish people would only increase the triumph of the warlike Emperor—when the news was spread abroad of Dupont's capitulation at Baylen (22nd of July), through which twenty thousand Frenchmen were made prisoners of war, and for the most part perished miserably. This success filled the nation with enthusiasm. The French armies retired across the Ebro; and when soon afterwards the intelligence arrived that in Portugal also the French would have been obliged to yield to the united forces of the Junta and the English, commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley, Moore, Napier, and other generals, and would have experienced a fate similar to that of Dupont's army, had not the English, in the capitulation of Cintra, consented to the free withdrawal of Junot's troops, the cause of the French in the Pyrenean Peninsula appeared to be lost.

The Constitution from the Year 1812.—Ill could Napoleon's pride brook the thought of his armies retreating before unpractised troops, and leaving a clear field to the hated English; therefore, after strengthening his forces with fresh recruits, he himself marched, at the head of a powerful, well-equipped army, across the Pyrenees. The Spaniards were now easily overpowered; and the Emperor, after a few weeks, was able to march into Madrid and re-instate his brother on the throne. In the meantime Saragossa was taken, after the most desperate resistance (21st December, 1808), and Palafox was carried, a prisoner, to France. The English armies confined themselves to the defence of Portugal, after Moore's heroic conflict and death at Corunna (16th January), and Wellesley's victory at Talavera (28th of July, 1809), had proved that the British land troops were not inferior in spirit and bravery to the naval forces.

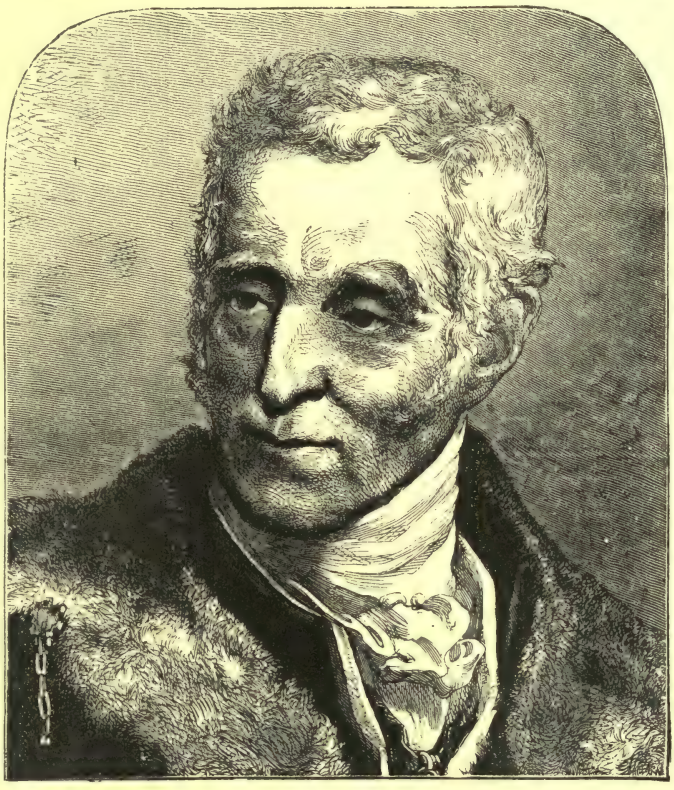
Seville, also, and the whole of Andalusia, with Granada, fell into the hands of the French. Nevertheless Spain did not yield. The warlike spirit of the ancient Spaniards was re-awakened; and while the national government at Cadiz thundered forth its decrees against Joseph and his adherents, and, by convening a national representation, introduced the Constitution of the Cortes, which bore such an important influence on the future of Spain, bold guerilla leaders kept warlike ardour, fanaticism, and self-confidence awake among the people.

Issue of the Peninsular War.—When, in the year 1809, the new war with Austria summoned the Emperor from Spain, he left behind him a numerous



AGOSTINA, THE MAID OF SARAGOSSA.

army, which, under the most capable leaders—Soult, Masséna, Suchet, Ney, etc.—marched through the different provinces and increased the renown of the French arms. But victories did but augment the hatred to the French; guerilla warfare was carried on more and more fiercely, and the greatest feats of heroism accomplished by Napoleon's practised soldiers did not avail to bring about the peaceful possession of the country. The Russian campaign compelled the Emperor to lessen the Spanish army, while the British troops were increased, and with Wellington as commander-in-chief, made their way into Spain. After Marmont's defeat at Salamanca (July 22nd, 1812) by Wellington, the English occupied Madrid, and expelled the French king; and



WELLINGTON.

though Joseph was afterwards reinstated for a time, he was ultimately obliged to quit Spanish soil. There now followed the brilliant victory of Vittoria, on the 21st of June, 1813, after which Wellington pursued the fugitives across the Pyrenees, repulsed Soult near Orthez, and invested Bordeaux. Heroically did the warlike marshal resist the advancing enemy near Toulouse, even on the 10th of April, when the allies were already encamped on the Champs Elysées at Paris. Napoleon's overthrow brought the hypocritical Ferdinand VII. again to the throne; but the nation, which had purchased the liberty of the country with its heart-blood, reaped but a poor reward.

Capture of the Pope.—The refusal of the Pope to exclude English ships

from the harbours of the States of the Church, and to enter into an alliance with France, had so offended the Emperor, that he not only threatened him with the confiscation of all the lands which his "distinguished ancestor," Charlemagne, had conferred upon the Bishop of Rome, but he also made demands, the granting of which would have materially lessened the spiritual power of the Prince of the Church. When Pius VII. met these demands with a decided refusal, Napoleon took forcible possession of Ancona, Urbino, and other districts of the Church States, and united them with the kingdom of Italy. The Emperor then issued a decree declaring the cessation of the temporal power of the Pope (16th of May, 1809), caused him to be carried off by force from Rome to Savona, and annexed the Church States to the French territory. This violent proceeding brought down on the Emperor the anathema of the Church, which, though it was generally regarded with contempt, was not without its effect in Spain.

After the Russian campaign, the Emperor succeeded in inducing the Pope to agree to a Concordat, by which the Pope was deprived of the power of appointing bishops at his pleasure. But the overthrow of the powerful conqueror brought about the liberation of the Prince of the Church and the restoration of the Church States.



STREET IN VIENNA.

Napoleon's Second War with Austria (1809).

PATRIOTIC impulses had arisen in Austria. The Spanish war had filled the Vienna Cabinet, in which the vigorous and patriotic Count Stadion was the leader, with the hope of regaining its lost power by a new coalition; and in April, 1809, Austria renewed the war with France, while its armies penetrated into Bavaria, Italy, and the dukedom of Warsaw, where the Russians, as the allies of Napoleon, and the Poles, under Poniatowski, were threatening Galicia. Napoleon now advanced with a large

army down the Danube, repulsed the enemy in a succession of victories at Hausen, Abensberg, Landshut, etc., and marched for the second time into the heart of Austria. On the 10th of May the French Emperor stood before the walls of the capital, which after three days he entered as victor, and appealed to the Hungarians to choose another king, and win back their old independence. When, however, the French army endeavoured to cross the river from the island of Lobau, they met with such resistance in the two days' battle of Aspern and Esslingen (May 21st and 22nd, 1809), that they were compelled to desist from their attempt. This murderous though indecisive battle shook for the first time the belief in Napoleon's invincibility, and raised the confidence of the oppressed people. Not till the Emperor had obtained fresh reinforcements and Eugene Beauharnais had joined the main army, did the French army once more attempt—and this time with more success—to cross the Danube, and compel the archduke Charles, after the horrible battle of Wagram (5th July), to withdraw. The losses on both sides were nearly equal; and as the French had now lost their finest soldiers and most skilful officers, it was only through Napoleon's unsurpassed military talents that victory still remained with his banner. The armed truce of Znaim, which was concluded a few days later, liberated the Emperor from a critical position. The Peace of Vienna, which was arranged on the 14th of October, again diminished the empire of Austria, and compelled the government to join the Continental system and to recognise the new constitution of Italy.

The Popular War in the Tyrol.—The mountainous region of the Tyrol, whose honest, simple inhabitants were faithfully attached to Austria, had fallen, in the Peace of Presburg, to Bavaria. A change in the organization of the government, combined with increased taxation and the tyranny of officials, at last roused such discontent and hostile feeling, that it was not difficult for the Austrians, on the renewed outbreak of the war, to persuade the Tyrolese by fair promises to rebel against the French and the Bavarians. By means of reliable messengers a secret negotiation was formed with Archduke John, the beloved prince of the mountain land. At the head of the insurgents was Andreas Hofer, "the bearded," a man of great authority among his countrymen, both on account of his bodily strength and bravery, as well as his religious zeal, his patriotic temper, and his steadfast and upright character. With him were associated the historian of the war, Hormayr, the bold and crafty Speckbacher, Martin Teimer, a good patriot, and Joseph Straub. With festive processions, joyful acclamations, and the ringing of bells, the Tyrolese received the Austrian troops as their liberators; and like lightning the insurrection thrilled throughout the whole country. Soon the Bavarian and French troops, after an unsuccessful battle near Sterzing (11th April, 1809), withdrew towards Innsbruck, revenging their defeat as they went by devastations and outrages. The Bavarian garrison of the capital was compelled to surrender after the bravest resistance; and the energetic commander, Ditfurth, was taken prisoner. This was followed by a disgraceful capitulation by the French general, Bisson, and at the same time the hated foreign yoke was thrown off, and Trient and Roveredo were wrested from the French. All Europe looked on with amazement at the heroic deeds of a peasant people who, within five days, had freed their country from its oppressors, and, without having stained the victory with any cruelty or violence, had restored its old constitution, and had again formed its broken alliance with Austria. But the delight in these victories was of short duration. Fresh troops were despatched by the enemy under Wrede and Lefebvre. The Bavarians stormed the bravely defended

Innsbruck; and finally the capital with the north of the Tyrol fell into the hands of the French and Bavarians, who on the 19th of May made their entry into Innsbruck.

Andreas Hofer again rallied his troops, however, for a renewed attack; and after the victorious battle of Inselberg, the Tyrolese once more gained possession of the capital. Shortly afterwards the armed truce of Znaim was declared, and for a time a delusive hope of security prevailed, until the Austrians retired, abandoning the country to the French and Bavarians, whose revengeful proclamations were soon confirmed by deeds of terror and savage cruelty.

Driven to desperation, the deceived people for the third time took up arms. Bloody vengeance now awaited the enemy. At Brixen (August 1st), and again at the Pontlatzer Bridge, the French forces were completely routed, and on August 15th the innkeeper of Passeyr marched for the third time into Innsbruck, and, as an Imperial "chief commander" in the Tyrol, ruled the country according to the old custom. But the dream of independence was of short duration: when, after the conclusion of the Peace of Vienna, the enemy with strong reinforcements attacked the unfortunate country simultaneously on three sides, and revenged the slaughter of their allies and brothers in arms, by savage outrages and depredations, the resistance of the brave people was broken at last. Innsbruck fell again into the hands of the Bavarians. Speckbacher and other leaders took refuge in flight, but Hofer was at last captured, and by Eugene's orders was shot at Mantua (February, 1810). "Base, contemptible world," he wrote a few hours before his death; "so easy does death seem to me, that my eyes have never once moistened." He died with the courage of a hero and a martyr, and his memory was held in reverence by his countrymen. The Tyrol was divided into three parts, of which one fell to the kingdom of Italy, the other to Illyria, while the third remained in the possession of Bavaria. Thus were the brave mountaineers sacrificed, and surrendered with bound hands into the power of their three-times vanquished adversaries.

Foreshadowings of the North German War.—Rash and foolhardy as were the attempts made about this time to throw off the foreign yoke of servitude in different districts of North Germany, yet they were of significance as proofs of the deep discontent which everywhere prevailed, and of the longing for deliverance. This feeling was especially fostered by the Tugendbund, or bond of virtue, to which belonged many men who were filled with patriotism, and eager to throw off the foreign despotism. A conspiracy was formed which spread through the whole of Westphalia, and penetrated even to Prussia, and which was intended to promote, by simultaneous insurrections, the enterprises of Austria. While the Prussian officer Von Katt made preparations for taking possession of the fortress of Magdeburg, the commander-in-chief Dörnberg, who had formerly been in the Prussian service, and had then been appointed by Jerome commander of his forces, was to take the king of Westphalia prisoner, and to bring back the elector. Both attempts failed; but through Jerome's mild and conciliatory policy, the enterprise passed off without any disastrous effects. The failure of the Hessian rebellion did not however deter the young and courageous Schill, who was initiated into the plans of Katt and Dörnberg, from attempting a similar enterprise. Confiding in the popular favour, which he had largely excited, he believed himself summoned to bring about the overthrow of foreign supremacy. Deceived by the false intelligence of Austrian victories, he marched with his devoted

troops to Dessau and Halle, disarmed a small Westphalian garrison, and engaged in a successful battle with a French commander at Dodendorf, not far from Magdeburg (May 5, 1809). But the news of the Austrian disasters, the people's fear of the great Emperor, and the disapproval of the king, had a paralysing effect on the enterprise. After the successful battle near Damgarten, Schill took possession of the strong town of Stralsund, determined to make it another Saragossa, or to maintain his position there against the enemy until he effected his embarkation to England. But being surrounded by General Gratien and a besieging army, he fell at the storming of the town, after the most determined struggle, while his followers were taken prisoners. The officers, eleven in number, were sentenced to be shot, and underwent their tragic fate with heroic fortitude. Chained two and two together, they awaited, standing and with uncovered eyes, the fire of the enemy's guns; they cheered for their King, and then gave the word to fire. The next moment ten lay on the ground; the eleventh was only wounded in the arm; he tore open his vest, and pointing to his heart, called out: "Here, grenadiers!" A moment later, he also was dead.

William of Braunschweig. More fortunate was Duke Frederick William of Braunschweig, a man of passionate, excitable nature, whom the fate of his family,—his father's terrible end, and his wife's death,—had rendered morose and sinister. He hated in Napoleon the author of his public and private misfortunes; and the feud in which he was engaged was both for asserting the cause of Germany, and at the same time was a war of revenge of quite a personal kind. Supported by Austrian troops, under general Am Ende, the duke invaded Saxony, to induce the people to ally themselves with Austria. But his enterprise led to no permanent success; he was repulsed by King Jerome, and by Junot, until the truce of Znaim deprived him of the support of Austria, and paralysed his efforts. He however attempted to get assistance from England, and in furtherance of this scheme, made his way through Hanover and embarked for Heligoland, whence his "black men" escaped in British ships to England (Aug., 1809), to await a more favourable opportunity. Not only in the North, but in the southern states of the Rhine Confederation, an intense feeling was shown by all the people during this war, and an earnest desire for liberation from the hated yoke of the foreign despot.

It was about this period that the English, with 40,000 men and 144 heavy guns, landed on the island of Walcheren, in order to take possession of Antwerp and the mouth of the Scheldt; but the enterprise was so badly conducted, that the destruction of the fortified works of Flushing was the only result of the costly enterprise. Castlereagh and Canning had such a violent dispute with regard to this affair, that a duel took place between them. Fouché, who, by a proclamation which offended the Emperor, had summoned the French national guard for the defence of the Netherlands, fell into disfavour, and lost his ministerial post, as Talleyrand had previously done when he expressed disapproval of Napoleon's proceedings towards Spain.

After the Peace of Vienna, Napoleon stood at the summit of his power and greatness. The thought of having no heir alone tormented him; and in consequence of this, he caused himself to be divorced from his much-loved Empress Josephine, and espoused Maria Louisa, daughter of the Emperor of Austria. When, in the following year, a son was born to him, who bore the ostentatious title of a king of Rome, his good fortune appeared complete

and the future of France decided; while the hopes of the Bourbons, on the other hand, seemed destroyed for ever. Yet pride and ambition still urged on the insatiable man to fresh enterprises, and made his name the terror both of princes and of peoples; while a terrible system of police repressed the last remnant of liberty at home, and threatened every suspected person with arbitrary imprisonment in the numerous state prisons. Towards England, which alone remained unsubdued, and rejected all proposals of peace, the whole wrath of the despot was directed; and as he believed he could vanquish it only by the destruction of its trade with the Continent, the continental restrictions, to the despair of the commercial and trading classes, were made still more severe. Only through the purchase of licences could ships bring foreign products, such as indigo, cochineal, skins, etc., which were used in inland industries, into French harbours. These measures threatened the prosperity of the kingdom of Holland; and king Louis, who felt for the calamities of his people, vainly appealed to his brother to lessen the restrictions of the commercial embargo. Napoleon followed up his refusal by despatching an armed naval force to watch the Dutch coasts, and finally united Zealand and north Brabant with the French Empire. This ill-treatment of a people who had hitherto sacrificed their lives and property for their powerful neighbour, excited the anger of the humane Louis. With reluctance, he resigned, in favour of his son, a throne which he could no longer fill with honour, but by so doing gave the Emperor the opportunity, in spite of his brother's stipulations, of uniting the kingdom of Holland with France in July, 1810.



KING OF ROME.



BURNING OF MOSCOW.

THE WAR WITH RUSSIA (1812).



UNFORTUNATELY, the extension of the French territory to the coast of the Baltic, by which the Duke of Oldenburg, a near relative of the Russian Imperial house, was deprived of his dominion, was a severe blow to the friendship of Alexander and Napoleon. The breach between the two courts was soon shown in the excited language of diplomatists, and was further increased by Alexander establishing a new tariff which interfered with the import of French goods, while it favoured English merchandise. At this the wrath of the proud Emperor broke forth anew, and a fresh war was immediately projected.

In May, 1812, Napoleon appeared with his wife at Dresden, where all the princes of the Rhenish Confederation, as well as the Emperor of Austria and King of Prussia, met together to pay their homage to the powerful ruler, who now summoned half Europe to take up arms against Russia. At the head of one division of an immense army he set out in the following June across the Niemen, and marched into Wilna, the former capital of Lithuania. The appearance of the French awakened the repressed national feeling of the Poles, and they enthusiastically greeted Napoleon as their deliverer, while the Diet of Warsaw proclaimed the restoration of the kingdom of Poland; and in spite of the Emperor's declaration that he could not, out of regard for Austria, consent to the revival of the old republic in its whole extent, the Polish army, under Poniatowski and other leaders, took up arms to do battle with the hereditary enemy of their nation.

Moscow, "the heart of Russia," was Napoleon's goal; but the first battle took place at Smolensk (August, 1812), and though bloody was indecisive. The Russians quitted the town in the night, burning it to the ground. A council of war was now held; but though many voices were raised against continuing the expedition, Napoleon insisted on the conquest of Moscow, and

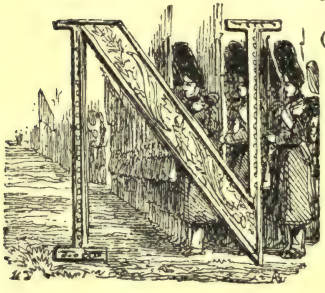
set out across the Dnieper. Souvarrov's comrade in arms, Kutusoff, was now appointed commandant-in-chief of the Russian troops, in place of the former general, Barclay, and the struggle soon developed into a national war. Everywhere the inhabitants escaped before the on-pressing enemy, having first set fire to their dwellings and villages. Terribly was the mighty army diminished by hunger, disease, and the attacks of the enemy. The sacred city of Moscow had now to be defended at all costs, if Kutusoff would not lose the popular favour. The battle of Borodino, on the Moskwa, was fought on the 7th of September, in which, though the French maintained the field, the Russians were able to retire in order. Over 70,000 dead and wounded covered the battle-field; and Ney, "prince of the Moskwa," was the hero of the day. On the 14th of September, the French marched into the old capital of Moscow, which had previously been deserted by the nobility and well-to-do citizens, most of the houses being left empty, and the populace only remaining in possession of the town. Even on their entry a secret horror took possession of the soldiers at the silence around them; but who can describe their terror, when the four-days' burning of Moscow—which, in the absence of any means of extinguishing the flames, soon developed into a sea of fire,—laid nine-tenths of the wooden-built town in ashes, together with the ancient Kremlin, which Napoleon had selected for his residence, and with one blow destroyed all their hopes. The governor, Rostopschin, had given the order for this horrible deed without the command of the Emperor, in order to deprive the great army of their winter quarters, and to compel them to a disastrous retreat. Napoleon, with incredible blindness, allowed himself to be detained for thirty-four days at Moscow by the delusive hope of a peace, without perceiving that Kutusoff sought to delay him till the beginning of winter, that the cold might destroy his ill-clad and unprotected soldiers. The Russian general attained his object. At the end of October, the disastrous retreat was commenced, which has no equal in the annals of warfare. After the horrible battle of Malo-Jaroslavetz (October 24), the French army struck out a path across the blood-stained battle-field of Borodino towards Smolensk. Who can picture all the sufferings, struggles, and obstacles by which this great army was gradually exterminated! Famine, frost, and weariness made even greater devastations than the balls of the Russians or the lances of the Cossacks. When, about the middle of November, Smolensk was at last reached, the army still numbered about 40,000 soldiers; but the greatest misery was still to come, for through faulty arrangements the expected supply of arms and provisions was not forthcoming; and the Russians, strengthened with fresh reinforcements, waylaid them at every step. The hero of the retreat was Ney, the leader of the rear-guard, the "bravest of the brave"; his passage over the frozen Dnieper in the night-time, watched by the Russians, was one of the boldest deeds in the history of the world. On the 25th of November, the army reached the memorable river Beresina, which was crossed in full view of the enemy, into whose hands fell 18,000 stragglers, while many perished in the ice-cold stream, or were trodden to death in the press. On the 3rd of December Napoleon despatched the famous bulletin which brought to his expectant people, who had been for months without any intelligence, the news that the Emperor was well, but that the great army was as good as destroyed. Two days afterwards he surrendered the chief command to Murat, and hastened to Paris to make fresh preparations.



THE FALL OF NAPOLEON. 1813–1815.

PERILOUS POSITION OF THE EMPIRE.—CAMPAIGN OF 1813.—BATTLES OF LUTZEN, WURTZEN, AND BAUTZEN.—ARMISTICE.—VICTORY OF NAPOLEON AT DRESDEN.—GREAT BATTLE OF LEIPSIC.—CAMPAIGN OF 1814.—THE ALLIES IN PARIS.—ABDICATION OF NAPOLEON.—ACCESSION OF LOUIS XVIII.—CONGRESS OF VIENNA.—ERRORS OF THE GOVERNMENT.—1815. RETURN OF NAPOLEON FROM ELBA.—THE 100 DAYS.—LIGNY AND WATERLOO—SECOND RESTORATION OF THE BOURBONS.—NAPOLEON'S CAPTIVITY AND DEATH.

NAPOLEON'S OVERTHROW.



OW Talleyrand's reported observation, that the Russian campaign "was the beginning of the end" soon proved itself true. On the 30th of December, 1812, the Prussian General York, who was serving on the coast of the Baltic under Macdonald, concluded the treaty of Tauroggen with the Russian general Diebitsch, and abstained with his troops from further conflict. This was soon followed by the alliance concluded between Prussia and Russia, for the liberation of Europe by means of a mutual struggle with France. The summons to arms was received throughout Prussia with enthusiasm, and in March the French had already quitted Berlin, and the Russian general Wittgenstein and Count York, who had been reinstated in his military honours, took possession of the capital.

In the first battles near Gross-Görschen and near Bautzen, the French, it is true, held their own on the battle-field; but the heroic courage of the young

German warriors proved to the enemy that another spirit than that which had animated them at Jena had come over the Prussians. For the first time a dim foreboding as to the vicissitudes of life appeared to creep into Napoleon's breast. But pride and arrogance carried him on. He, however, agreed to the truce of Pläswitz in order to gain time for making fresh levies, which afforded Austria an opportunity for concluding the treaty of Reichenbach with Russia, Prussia, and England. On the 12th of August Austria formally declared war against France; and though Napoleon was once more triumphant in the battle of Dresden (August 26 and 27) yet the expected fruits of this victory, which forced the allied army to retreat to Bohemia, were destroyed, first, by Blücher's glorious battle on the Katzbach (August 26th) in Silesia, with Macdonald; secondly, by the surrounding and taking prisoner of the energetic general Vandamme, with 10,000 Frenchmen, in the battle of Culm in Bohemia (August 29 and 30); thirdly, by the brilliant exploits of the Prussian-Swedish army in the two battles of Gross-Beeren (August 25) and Dednewitz (Sept. 6) under Bernadotte, Bülow, Tauenzien, etc., which frustrated the intended capture of Berlin by Marshals Oudinot and Ney; and fourthly, by the battle of Hagelsberg (August 27), where the brave volunteers under Hirschfeld cut down the troops of Girard, consisting of French, Italians, and Westphalians. A few weeks afterwards the union of the Silesian army with the army of the North took the place; after which Count York, supported by the brave general Horn, forced his passage across the Elbe in the face of the enemy, and gained the brilliant victory of Wartenburg on October the 3rd.

Leipsic.—In the autumn the issue of the great struggle became hardly more doubtful; the German troops, in part, deserted Napoleon's banner, and went over to their countrymen; while the appearance of a Russian army before Cassel compelled King Jerome to take flight temporarily from his capital, and Bavaria joined the allies. In October the allied armies took up their position in the plains of Leipsic, the Austrians under the Prince of Schwarzenberg, the Russians under Barclay, Wittgenstein, etc., the Prussians under Blücher, York, and Bülow, and the Swedes under Bernadotte. The combined forces numbered 300,000 men, 100,000 more than the French army. The bloody battle of Liebertwolkwitz was a worthy prelude of the great decisive battle which was to follow. In vain did the crowned warrior, whom the god of war had so often favoured, display his unsurpassed talent for generalship on the plains of Leipzic; in vain did his most distinguished generals, Ney, Murat, Augerau, Macdonald, the Pole Poniatowsky and others exert their utmost powers,—the three-days' battle of Leipsic (16, 17, 18 Oct.) was the grave of the French Empire.

Pursued by the enemy, the French reached the Rhine through Erfurt in hasty marches. The troops were exhausted and hungry; and their sullen humour was already partly directed against the author of all their misery. Napoleon himself, whose proud and unemotional demeanour had hitherto remained unmoved, was now shaken, his mien showed his depression. At Hanau, General Wrede, with an army of Bavarians and Austrians, barred the progress of the fugitives, who, with heavy losses, forced their way through Frankfort to the Rhine. But the unfortunate soldiers all bore within them the germs of deadly disease; and even before the end of the year half of them died in overflowing hospitals.

Results of the Battle of Leipsic.—In Germany the battle of Leipsic had wrought a great transformation. The dissolution of the kingdom of West-

phalia, the return of the elector of Hesse, and the dukes of Brunswick and Oldenburg to their States, were the first consequences of this memorable catastrophe. The Confederation of the Rhine was dissolved ; Wurtemberg, Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt, Nassau, concluded treaties with Austria, and placed their troops under the banners of the Allies. Denmark, since 1807, Napoleon's most faithful ally, could not resist the combined attacks of its neighbouring enemies. It renounced the French alliance in the Peace of Kiel (14th Jan., 1714), and agreed to the cession of Norway to Sweden, and of Heligoland to England, while in return it received the dukedom of Lauenberg from Prussia. In Italy also the governments of Napoleon were overthrown. The vice-king Eugene, after a brave resistance, yielded the field to the Austrians, who also gained possession of the plentiful plains of Lombardy. The grand-duke Ferdinand returned to Tuscany, and the Church-State received back again



THE COSSACKS IN FRANCE, IN 1814.

the much-tried Pope, Pius VII. The return of the old man from his French imprisonment resembled a triumphal procession.

Napoleon's last Struggle (1814).—In Frankfort the allied monarchs, with their ministers and generals, held council together as to whether they should cross the German "boundary stream." A draft of a peace was however ultimately drawn up, and presented to the French Emperor, in which he was assured of the possession of France within its natural boundaries, the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees, if he would consent to the independence of Germany, Holland, and Italy, and to the restoration of the ancient dynasty in Spain. When only a dubious and undecided answer was given to this ultimatum, it was finally decided to cross the Rhine, chiefly at the instigation of the Baron von Stein, a great and enlightened statesman, who had much influence on the Emperor Alexander. On New Year's Day, 1814, Blücher

crossed the Rhine between Mannheim and Coblentz, while Schwarzenberg with the main army marched through Switzerland to the south-east of France. The Pyrenees were crossed by the English from Spain, and the kingdom of Italy was threatened by Austria.

In Champagne the armies of Blücher formed a junction with that of Schwarzenberg; and the victory of La Rothière, which followed on the bloody but indecisive conflict of Brienne, promised the Allies a speedily successful issue. The French army, despairing of the Emperor's further success, lost courage. Now, however, the genius of the great general once more shone forth with all its former splendour. Leaving only a small number of troops



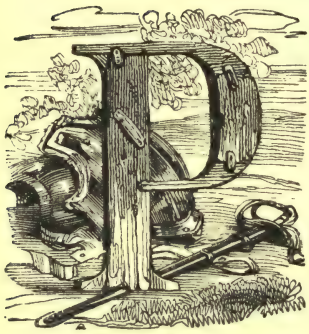
DEFENCE OF PARIS.

to encounter Schwarzenberg's army, he attacked, with his remaining forces, Blücher's victorious Silesian troops, defeated them within five days in five successive battles, and compelled them to retreat. Negotiations for peace were entered upon, and an arrangement was nearly arrived at, but Napoleon's double-dealing frustrated it. Presently, Blücher succeeded in gaining some advantages over the weakened French army at Craonne and Laon, on the 7th and 9th of March. The Allies saw the opportunity the enemy's exhaustion gave them. A march upon Paris and the dethronement of Napoleon were decided on. The battle of Arcis-sur-Aube on March 20th and 21st, soon convinced the French Emperor that his diminished and exhausted army could no longer make head against the serried and well-appointed

legions of the enemy; and this conviction rendered him undecided as to his course. Suddenly he marched to the defence of Paris, where his presence was so much needed; but he could only get as far as Fontainebleau before he heard that the capital had surrendered. The unappreciated Carnot, who had formerly rejected the favour of the powerful ruler, now offered his assistance to the Emperor, who confided to him the defence of the citadel of Antwerp, made his disheartened brother Joseph commander-in-chief of the national guard, appointed the Empress head of the regency, and allowed men of small capacity to fill the most important offices in the State. Scarcely, however, had the enemy's army stormed Montmartre on the 30th of March, before Joseph resigned his authority in favour of Mortier and Marmont, and quitted the threatened capital. The two marshals were compelled, after the most heroic efforts, to yield to the superior force of the enemy, and surrender the town by treaty.

Then followed the entry of the Allies into Paris, on the 31st of March, 1814.

Establishment of the New Government.



PREMATURELY abandoning her post, the Empress, Marie Louise, had already repaired to Blois with her little son, the King of Rome, and her ministers, and by so doing had facilitated the efforts made by the cunning Talleyrand in the interests of the exiled royal family. The regency at Blois soon lost all power and authority when the Emperor Alexander took up his abode in Talleyrand's palace, and allowed himself to be swayed by the counsels of the wise and astute diplomatist. Great efforts were now made by the returning emigrants to awaken the sympathies of the people for the old royal family; and on the 1st of April, the Senators present in Paris proclaimed the dethronement of Napoleon; and a provisional government was formed with Talleyrand at its head. The prevailing sentiment of the nation (especially in the south and west) appeared to favour the restoration of the legitimate royal family.

Napoleon's Abdication.—In the meantime Napoleon tarried at Fontainebleau, helplessly vacillating between different plans, until the news of Marmont's desertion made him resolve to abdicate the throne in favour of his son. But this conditional resignation was not accepted by the Allies; and the Emperor was at last obliged, on the 7th of April, 1814, to sign an unconditional act of abdication, as drawn up by the European Powers. He was awarded the island of Elba, with an annual income of 2,000,000 francs and permission to keep 400 of his faithful guard around him. The Duchy of Parma was conferred on the Empress, with hereditary succession for her son, the Duke de Reichstadt, who died in 1832; Josephine, who only survived these events a few weeks, and all the members of the Bonapartist family received handsome dowries and princely titles.

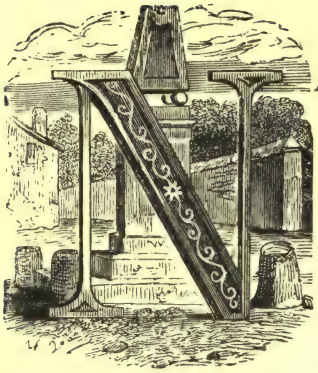
On the 20th of April Napoleon took a touching farewell of the grenadiers of his guard at Fontainebleau, and then set out for the south coast, pursued with scoffing derision by the same people who, in the following year, were

again to receive him with acclamation and delight. On the 4th of May he landed at Elba. The only generals who remained faithful to the Emperor, even after his good fortune had deserted him, were Bertrand and Macdonald.

Soon after the departure of Napoleon, to the delight of the people, who were weary of warfare, the first Peace of Paris was concluded (30th of May, 1814), in accordance with which Louis XVIII. was appointed king, and France obtained its old frontiers of 1792, with most of the colonies which it had lost to England, Portugal, and Sweden. The foreign armies quitted the French soil. The Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia paid a visit to their Allies in London, where they were magnificently entertained by the Prince Regent.

The Congress of Vienna.—The return of the legitimate royal house to its lost throne, and the complete abolition of the republican constitution, were the two principles which were most quickly agreed upon by the Congress of Vienna, which was to undertake the reconstitution of Europe. Disputes however arose as to the disposal of the countries which had been conquered from the French and their allies; while the union of Saxony with Prussia, and Russia's attempt to appropriate the whole of Poland, were opposed by England, France, and Austria. A fresh war already threatened to break out, when the news of Napoleon's landing at Cannes, on March 1st, 1815, compelled the princes to a speedy reconciliation and to united and vigorous action.

The Provisional Government had hastily drawn up a Constitution, in which the Bourbons obtained royal power; the Senators, permanent office; the army, maintenance of grades and privileges; and the people, religious liberty and freedom of the press. When, however, the Comte d'Artois appeared in Paris, and temporarily undertook the governorship, he soon allowed it to be seen that the principle of the Revolution,—according to which the royal dignity was considered as conferred by contract with the nation, and not as granted by the grace of God to the legitimate occupant of the throne,—had no signfication in the eyes of the Bourbons. It was only too soon apparent that the old royal family "had learnt nothing and had forgotten nothing." All traces of the Revolution and of the Empire were as quickly as possible obliterated. For the tricoloured national cockade was substituted as an emblem the white badge of the Bourbons; the officers of the great army were compelled to retire on half-pay; and the court lived in luxury, while the people were oppressed with the burden of undiminished taxation. Added to this, Louis XVIII. was a man of awkward and undignified presence, though not without understanding and goodness of heart; but obstinate and full of prejudice, violently opposed to modern ideas. The clergy for the most part longed for a return to mediæval darkness and superstition; the nobility, for a revival of feudal ordinances; and the court, for the repossession of its former supreme power. General discontent took possession of the nation, the desire for change was once more aroused, especially as upwards of 100,000 soldiers had returned home, and now spread their Bonapartist sympathies throughout the entire land.



The Period of the Hundred Days.

NAPOLEON soon heard of the mistakes committed by the Bourbons. He was told that the emigrants were to be reinstated in their property "because they had turned to the right path;" and presently he was informed by Fouché, Carnot, and others of his adherents, of the feeling of the people; then he determined to try his fortune once more, and to regain the throne he had lost. With nine hundred men he landed on the south coast of France, near Cannes, on the 1st of March; and by the issue of several judiciously worded proclamations, in which he promised security of property to the people, to the soldiers martial fame, and to the citizen class a Constitution in accordance with the demands of the age, he quickly won all hearts. The tricolour was brought forth from its concealment, and publicly set up everywhere again; the troops sent against him rallied round his banner, and the citizens of Grenoble opened their gates to him. In vain did the Count d'Artois hasten to Lyons to save his brother's throne; he was encountered by the universal cry: "*Vive l'Empereur!*" And when Ney, who had been despatched with a force against Napoleon, also espoused the cause of his former comrade in arms, and the enthusiasm spread through all classes, the Bourbons at last recognised that their throne had been set up on the smouldering fires of a volcano; and in a panic of dismay they for the second time quitted their native soil. Louis XVIII. took up his residence at Ghent; while Napoleon, on the 30th of March, entered the Tuileries, and appointed a ministry composed of men of the revolutionary period, Carnot, Maret, Fouché, Cambacères, and others. Thus began the strange feverish period of the Hundred Days, under the most favourable auspices for Napoleon. Nevertheless, he secretly disliked the reforms and liberties he had sanctioned; and though he was compelled to some extent to render homage to the spirit of the time, he still aimed at the restoration of the Imperial power.



MARSHAL NEY.

Murat's Death.—Even before Napoleon's abdication, Murat had severed his fortunes from those of his brother-in-law, and had entered into a treaty with Austria, on the strength of which he was to be allowed to keep the sovereignty of Naples, while in return he was to make war on the vice-king of Italy. But Murat soon recoiled from this unnatural proceeding, and his soldier-like temper revolted against the idea of such treachery to the common cause. After the landing of Napoleon, therefore, he declared war against Austria, and summoned the people of Italy to arms. The battle of Tolentino, in May, 1815, was, however, decided against him; the Austrians marched into his capital, and gave back the vacant throne to its



THE RETURN OF NAPOLEON FROM ELBA.

former possessor, Ferdinand. Soon after the battle of Waterloo, Murat attempted to excite another popular rebellion against Ferdinand in Calabria, but was taken prisoner and shot, on the 13th of October, 1815.



WELLINGTON AT WATERLOO.



WATERLOO.

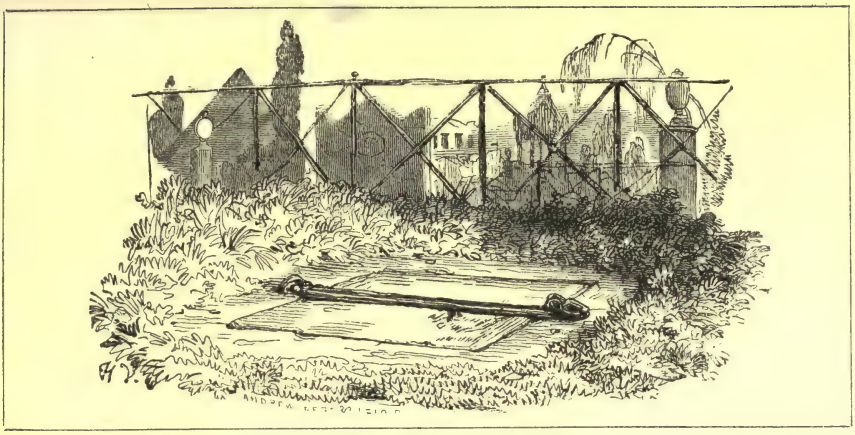
EVEN earlier than this, Napoleon's fate had been decided. Austria and Russia were not yet ready for the conflict. While they were preparing their armies of half a million soldiers, an efficient force under Blücher and Wellington was brought into the field by the European powers against the invading usurper. Napoleon led his army into Belgium. The English and Prussians marched forth to encounter him on the 16th of June. The Prussians were beaten by Napoleon at Ligny, while the English held their ground against Ney at Quatre Bras. On the 17th, while Blücher retreated towards Wavre, Wellington took up a new position at Waterloo. On the 18th,—the decisive day,—victory long wavered in the balance. It was, as the victorious general described it, a battle of giants. The English sustained the shock of the attack during the whole day. The Prussians, facing all obstacles and dangers, arrived in the afternoon on the field, to give assistance to Wellington's army, while Marshal Grouchy, who had been despatched by Napoleon to follow up Blücher, kept aloof from the battle-field. The French, in spite of the heroic bravery of Napoleon's veteran warriors, were completely defeated. This was the battle of Belle Alliance, or Waterloo, on the famous 18th of June, 1815. Terrible was the struggle on the height of Mont St. Jean, from which place the French give the battle its name; and the words which were subsequently

falsely attributed to General Cambronne—"The guard dies, but does not yield"—were held in reverent remembrance by the nation as the last echo of a great conflict, and of a glorious period that had passed away. Pale and confused, Napoleon, who appeared to have lost, together with his old success, all his old elasticity and wealth of resources, allowed himself to be led off by Soult from the battle-field, and, pursued by the enemy, threw himself without hat or sword on to a horse, and hastened to Paris. Flight soon became general, and all the ammunition fell into the hands of the enemy.

The Chambers in Paris immediately requested the Emperor to resign the crown. This the humbled ruler consented to do in favour of his son; and when the victorious armies made their appearance for the second time before the gates of Paris, he hastened to Rochefort, and took refuge in an English ship of war, the *Bellerophon*, trusting to the generosity of the British people, and demanding to be allowed to live in England. On his arrival at Plymouth, however, he learnt the terrible news that he was to conclude his days as a State prisoner on the island of St. Helena. In vain did he energetically protest against this decision. On the 18th of October he landed at the place of his banishment in the midst of the mighty Atlantic. Here he dwelt—a chained Prometheus, separated from his followers, in an unhealthy climate, and under the supervision of the stern and unbending but not altogether unkindly governor, Sir Hudson Lowe. Grief at his irremediable overthrow, the cessation of his accustomed activity, and indignation at the strict and, as he considered it, unworthy treatment to which he was subjected, broke down his vigorous constitution and humbled his proud spirit. After six sorrowful years, he died, on the 5th of May, 1821.

The Restoration.

After Napoleon's abdication, a Provisional Government was established under Fouché's direction, which shortly afterwards surrendered the capital into the hands of the Allies. This was soon followed by the reinstalment of the Bourbons, under the protection of foreign bayonets, at the Tuileries, the dissolution of the Chambers, and the disbanding of the army. The allied monarchs once more took up their abode in Paris, and supported the Bourbons in the establishment of the new Government. At last, when the Restoration appeared secure, the second Peace of Paris was arranged, in November, 1815, by which France was limited to the frontiers of 1790, was compelled to pay seven hundred million francs as war indemnity, and for five years was to be occupied by an army of the Allies, who were quartered in Paris and in the seventeen fortresses of the frontiers. The proposal of Prussia that the former German provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, with Strasburg, should be again united with Germany, was negatived by Russia and England, who regarded a strong French kingdom as necessary for the tranquillity of Europe and for a lasting peace.



THE PERIOD OF REACTION.

FROM 1815 TO 1830.

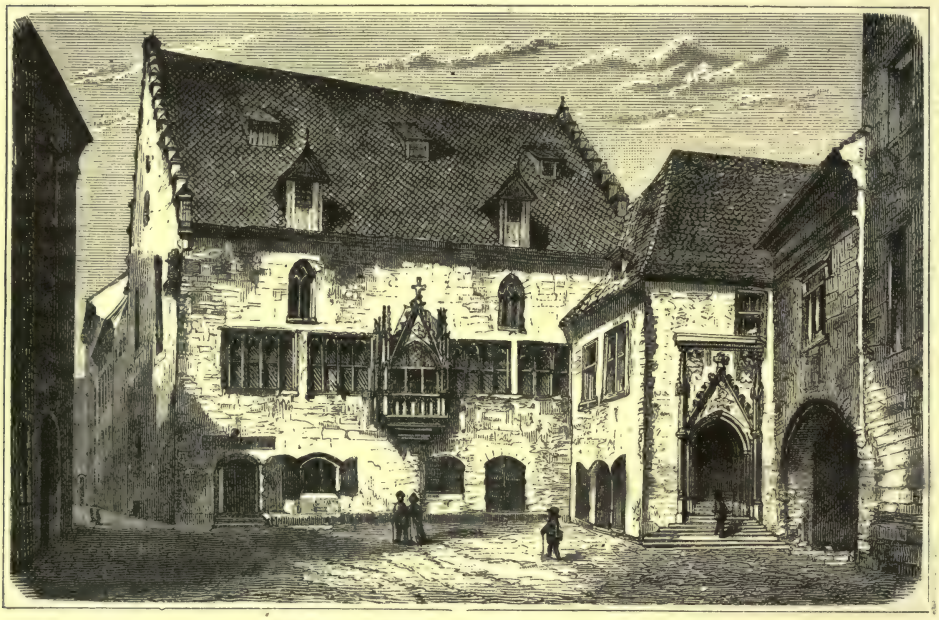
THE HOLY ALLIANCE.—GERMAN ROMANTICISM.—FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XVIII. AND CHARLES X.—THE REACTIONARY TENDENCY.—SPAIN AND ITALY.—ENGLAND; STATE OF CLASSES.—INDIA.—STRUGGLE IN GREECE.

THE HOLY ALLIANCE.



UNDER the new *régime*, on the 25th of September, 1815, the three allied monarchs, the Emperor Alexander, the pious king, Frederick William of Prussia, and the Emperor Francis of Austria, entered into a compact called the Holy Alliance, which was soon joined by all the European powers with the exception of England and the Pope. In this Holy Alliance, which was formed without regard to diversities of creed, the three sovereigns swore, "in accordance with the teachings of Holy Scripture, which commands all men to love each other as brothers, to remain united by the bonds of a true and indissoluble brotherly love, to render each other help and assistance, to govern their subjects in a paternal manner, and to uphold religion, peace, and justice." For more than a decade Europe remained under the influence of the Holy Alliance. Repression of all revolutionary ideas, and of every aspiration after popular sovereignty or democratic forms of constitution, was the principal object of the league. The death of the Emperor Alexander robbed the Alliance of its most important supporter, and paved the way for its entire annihilation by the eventful revolution of July, 1830, which called into existence a "citizen kingship" and the principle of national sovereignty in France, and destroyed the labours of the Vienna Congress by the separation of Belgium from the kingdom of the Netherlands, and by the elevation of Poland.

German literature during this period took the romantic form. Among the romantic writers of the period may be mentioned Hermes (1738–1821) of Pomerania, Musäus (1735–87) of Jena, who sought in his "Popular Tales" to awaken an interest in the traditions of the fatherland, and Lafontaine (1759–1831), whose refined romances had for their aim the shaking off of prejudice in matters of education and the pulling down of the pedantic class distinctions which had retarded the development of Germany. In the first rank among writers of humorous romances stands Jean Paul Friedrich Richter (1763–1825) of Wunsiedel, whose works, being the exact representation of his inner life, and narrow, restricted world of feeling, are only to be understood from a knowledge of the history of his own mental development.



THE OLD COUNCIL HOUSE AT RATISBON.

His earliest works had a satirical tendency, and showed that he had deeply studied Swift. The lyric poet Novalis (1772–1801) was regarded as the head of the romantic school of poetry, which included also the brothers August William and Frederick von Schlegel, sons of a preacher at Hanover, and their friend and associate, Louis Tieck, of Berlin (1773–1853). Among the German poets who sang in honour of liberty and the unity of the fatherland, were Körner (1791–1813), Uhland (1787–1862), who, besides his writings entitled "Lyric Poems, Ballads, and Romances," was also the author of several dramatic works, and Arndt (1769–1860), who excited the anger of Napoleon by his heterodox work "*Geist der Zeit.*"



France under Louis XVIII. and Charles X.

AMID the confines of the deeply-stirred French Empire, the Restoration wrought a memorable revolution in thought and sentiment. At first tendencies hostile to revolutionary ideas were predominant; as on the memorable occasion when the conscientious sovereign was only able with great efforts to protect the fundamental law of the Constitution from the zeal of the ultra Royalists. A temper of fanatical, religious credulity now took the place of heterodoxy and freethought, and, in conjunction with an ardent Royalism, gave rise to many scenes of violence in the South of France, which surpassed even the wildest excesses of the revolutionary period. The election of the "regicide" Grégoire, formerly member of the Convention, and still more the assassination of the Duc de Berry on the 13th of February, 1820, by a fanatical enthusiast named Louvel, furthered the aims of the reactionists, and compelled the king to dismiss the moderate ministry of Decazes, and to consent to restrictions on the liberty of the press and the right of election. Under the ministry of Villèle, Royalist zeal reached its climax (1823).

Charles X.—Louis XVIII. closed his chequered and eventful career Sept. 16th, 1824, and was succeeded by his brother, the Comte d'Artois, under the title of Charles X. His solemn and ceremonious coronation seemed to indicate that he intended to govern after the fashion of "most Christian kings;" and the grant of 1,000 million francs to Royalist emigrants quickly created a bad impression throughout the country. He also conferred favours and indulgences on the Jesuits, believing that the Church's restoration would form a barrier against revolutionary ideas; while at the same time young and ardent minds were eagerly drinking in liberal doctrines from the professors at the Paris University (Guizot, Villemain, etc.), and reading the bold articles of the Opposition press, while the citizens devoured cheap editions of Voltaire and descriptions of the great Revolution.

The Revolution of July.—Regardless of the altered temper of the nation, Charles X. continued his reactionary policy. The Liberal ministry was replaced by one of ultra Royalist tendencies, with Polignac at its head. The Chamber, proving refractory with regard to the Government measures, was dissolved; but after a fresh election, the Opposition members appeared in redoubled force. And finally, when the Government organ, the *Moniteur*, in July, 1830, published the famous decrees, suspending the freedom of the press, dissolving the Chamber of Deputies before it had met, and altering the system of election, the Revolution of July broke out; and after three days' heroic fighting, the nation threw off the yoke of the House of Bourbon. A Provisional Government was formed until the Constitutional party proved victorious, and Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, was chosen to preside over what was to be the constitutional monarchy of France.

For the third time Charles X., with his family, retired into exile, while his prudent kinsman swore allegiance to a revised charter, and ascended the throne as King of the French.

Constitutional Struggles in Spain and Italy.—Absolutism and Camarilla in Spain.



EMOCRATIC and revolutionary ideas had not yet reached the priest-ridden peoples of the South; they were confined to the educated classes, and were propagated by secret societies in Spain and Portugal, and in Italy, where the chief association was that of the Carbonari.

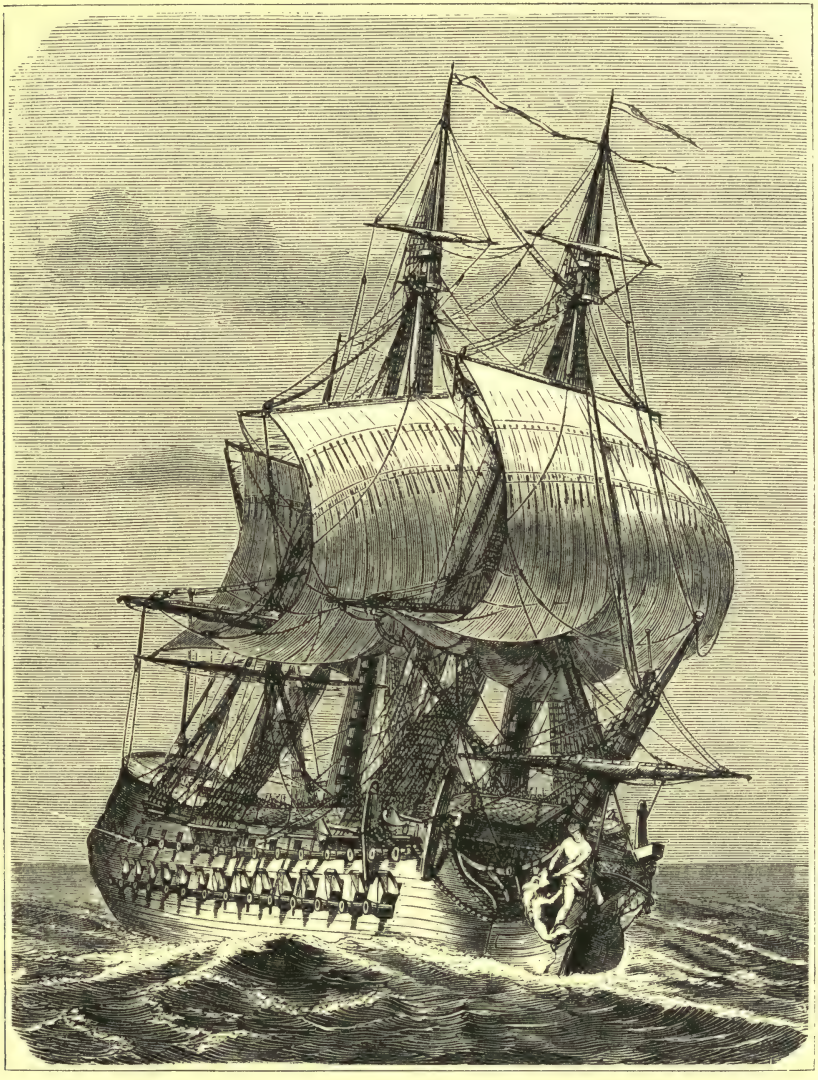
Ferdinand VII., on his return to Spain, got rid of the Cortes Constitution, which he hated, and placed himself entirely under the guidance of the reactionists, or Camarilla. This led to a revolutionary outbreak in Cadiz, on the 1st of January, 1820, headed by Riego and Quiroga; which was followed by a series of violent struggles between the adherents of the king and the constitutional party.

Popular Insurrections in Portugal, Naples, and Sardinia.—Portugal and Italy quickly followed Spain's example. The Inquisition was abolished, and freedom of the press was granted in Lisbon and Oporto. In Naples insurrections were fostered by the Carbonari, and in Piedmont the king, Victor Emanuel, endeavoured to efface all traces of French rule by the restoration of the old Constitution. The re-instalment of the Jesuits and nobility in all their old privileges excited general discontent, and ultimately the king was obliged to renounce the throne in favour of his brother.

Intervention of the Holy Alliance.—The heads of the Holy Alliance, uneasy at the revolutionary spirit that was abroad, despatched an Austrian army to Naples, and reinstated the absolute royal power. Turin and Alessandria were also invested by the Austrians, and Absolutism was again restored in its severest form. A similar fate befell the Spanish Cortes. An attempt to subvert the Constitution and place greater power in the hands of the king was vehemently opposed by the democratic classes; but when a French army, under the Bourbon Duke of Angoulême, marched into the country, the Cortes vainly summoned the people to resistance; the French were greeted as deliverers, marched as victors into Madrid, and after the escape of the Cortes and the king, established a regency. Cadiz was now the next object of attack for the French; but after negotiations between the Cortes and the besiegers, Ferdinand was reinstated by the aid of foreign bayonets, and the Apostolic party, who had chosen absolute monarchy as their watch-word, turned all their wrath on their opponents. Riego died by the hand of the executioner. Thus in Spain the same fierce passions had been excited for the preservation of the old order of things, which had previously raged in France for the destruction of everything that was ancient and obsolete.

Constitutional Struggle in Portugal.—The disastrous fate of the Spanish Cortes inspired the queen of Portugal, the sister of Fredinand VI., and her second son, Don Miguel, with the desire of attempting, by an arbitrary measure, to overthrow the hated Constitution. Encouraged by a conspiracy headed by Don Miguel, the feeble king, John VI., abolished the Cortes, and commenced a persecution of the Constitutional party in 1823. When John died, his eldest son, Don Pedro, then Emperor of Brazil, made over the government to his daughter, Maria da Gloria, and granted the Portuguese a

liberal Constitution. Don Miguel was appointed regent during the minority of the queen Donna Maria, and availed himself of his position to endeavour to obtain for himself the royal power; but was finally defeated and banished from the country.



The Free States of South America.

For three centuries the vast districts of South America and of Mexico had borne the heavy yoke of the Spanish mother country and every attempt to rouse the different States to rebellion, even when aided by the English and French, was frustrated by the sluggishness of the people, and by class jealousies and dissensions. Even at the beginning of the present century

the Spanish possessions in America consisted of four vice-kingdoms (New Granada, Mexico, Rio de la Plata, and Peru) and five dependencies; but with the expulsion of the Bourbons from the Spanish throne, the bond which had united the colonies with the mother country was dissolved, and the aspirations of the patriotic party after independence met with their fulfilment.

Great Britain.—State of Classes in England.

ENGLAND had come forth, powerful and victorious, from the twenty years' war; it had asserted its naval supremacy, extended its West Indian possessions, obtained in the East Indies an empire which, in size and population, far surpassed the mother country, and by means of bold navigators, like Cook and others, had brought several distant islands under the sway of its sceptre. The possession of Gibraltar and Malta, the protectorate of the Ionian Islands, and the free passage through the Dardanelles, secured to the British Empire, in the Treaty of Paris, the dominion of the Mediterranean and intercourse with the Levant. While, however, one portion of the nation amassed enormous wealth, the mass of the people had sunk into the lowest depths of poverty, a state of affairs which had been brought about by costly wars, burdensome taxation, and the oppressive corn-laws, which prevented any importation of foreign corn. This condition led to frequent popular risings, which, however, were easily repressed by military force; but the cruel onslaught on an unarmed assemblage of men, women, and children at Manchester, in 1819, known as the "Peterloo Massacre," had drawn severe reproach upon the Government.

Ireland, which has continued up to the present day to be the cause of danger and difficulty to the British Empire, was still smouldering with hatred towards the English nation; both on account of the cruel treatment of the poor country people by the owners of the land, who had come over from England and had settled in the conquered island, and also through the unnatural condition of the Church establishment, an unemployed English Protestant clergy being in possession of all the temporal property of the Church, while the poverty-stricken Catholic population had to maintain their unpaid priesthood out of their necessity. Not till the following reign was a decisive step taken towards effecting a reconciliation, by means of the Emancipation Act (1829), which granted the Catholic Irish access to the English Parliament.

After the arduous wars with Napoleon, England had relapsed into a condition of enervation; King George IV. (1820–30) gave all his confidence to the Tory party, and still further alienated the good-will of his people by a vexatious suit of divorce in the House of Lords against his wife, Caroline of Brunswick, in 1821. When the queen died, in the following year, the sympathy, or rather the compassion, of the whole nation followed her to the grave. After the suicide of the minister Castlereagh, for many years the confidant and associate of the king, George retired into gloomy seclusion, while the great statesman Canning, who upheld the principles of the Whigs, once more asserted the former pre-eminence of the English Empire. As the only daughter of George IV., the princess Charlotte of Wales, who had been married to Prince Leopold of Coburg, died without children, the king, on

his death, was succeeded by his brother, William IV., on the 26th of June, 1830. Under this sovereign, the "sailor king," the emancipation of the slaves in the West India Colonies was at last effected, a result for which Wilberforce, Buxton, and other philanthropists had laboured for many years. After William IV., his niece Victoria, who on the 10th of February, 1840, married Prince Albert of Coburg, ascended the throne of England (20th of June, 1837).

Establishment of the English Supremacy in the East Indies.—By means of conquests and trading intercourse, the territory of India was rapidly falling under the sway of England. In 1698, Calcutta was raised to a presidency, and the subsequent quarrels between the native rulers of India, the Nizams and Nabobs, still further strengthened the hands of the English. In 1756, after the inhuman Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal, had captured Fort William at Calcutta, and the atrocious massacre of the Black Hole of Calcutta had taken place, Clive, the enterprising warrior who had been appointed to a high post by the Company, hastened from Madras, defeated the Nabob, and took possession of Calcutta; and soon afterwards the entire supremacy of Bengal was obtained for an annual payment of a million pounds sterling. During the governorship of the talented but unscrupulous Warren Hastings, the whole country was thrown into great commotion by the aggressive proceedings on the part of the East India Company. For many years they waged fierce wars against Hyder Ali, Sultan of Mysore, and his son and successor Tippoo Sahib, who was finally defeated and slain in battle at the taking of his capital, Seringapatam, in 1799. In 1817, followed the entire subjugation of the Mahratta States.

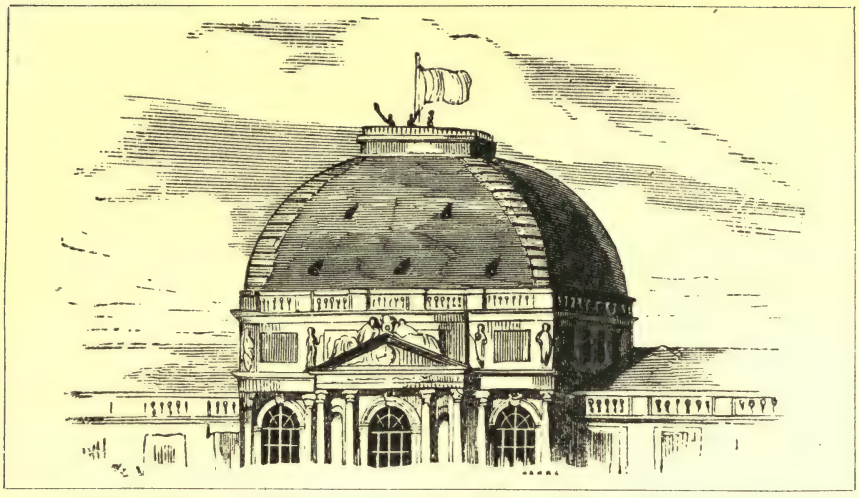


LORD CLIVE.

Struggle for Liberty in Greece.

THE Greeks began to aspire to freedom. In the year 1814 two Societies were formed in Greece, the object of both being the emancipation of the country from thraldom; the latter being a purely political combination, which in 1820 was placed under the presidency of Alexander Ypsilanti, a Moldavian nobleman in the service of Russia. Through his efforts the Greeks were incited to rise in rebellion against their Turkish masters; but in a desperate battle near Dragatschan, on the 19th of June, 1821, the "sacred band" of the Greeks was entirely exterminated, and Ypsilanti was compelled to make his escape to Austria. Almost simultaneously the population of the Peloponnesus took up arms, and incurred the bloody vengeance of the Turks. The Turkish fleet was, however, successfully attacked by the Greeks, who also maintained their ascendancy on land. After the victorious battle of Valtezi, the town of Tripoli fell into the hands of the Greeks, and on the first of January, 1822, the first Greek national assembly was held at Piadka, when a Constitution was drawn up for the country. In this national struggle of the Greeks, the famous English poet, Lord Byron, devoted his talent, his property, and his energy to the cause of Greek liberty, until his death was brought about from the effect of the climate and the fatigues of the campaign. In 1824, the Porte gained the assistance of its vassal, the Viceroy of Egypt, Mahomed Ali, in repressing its insubordinate subjects, and for two years the Peloponnesus was cruelly devastated, until the fall of Missolonghi, on April 22nd, 1826.

Shortly before this event the Emperor Alexander had died suddenly after a short illness, at Taganrog, in December, 1825, and was succeeded by his second brother, Nicholas. In England the rudder of the State was confided to the noble and patriotic statesman, George Canning, who succeeded, through the agency of Wellington, in bringing about an alliance between England and Russia, which was subsequently joined by France, for mediating between Greece and Turkey. Shortly afterwards the Turkish fleet was attacked in the harbour of Navarino, and after a fierce contest lasting four hours, was entirely destroyed, in October, 1827. In the spring of the following year, war broke out between Russia and Turkey. The campaign, however, proved unfavourable to the former power; the Russian general, Diebitsch, crossed the Balkans to Adrianople, but his troops were so much reduced in number by hunger and disease, that he was unable to maintain his position in the hostile territory. The Porte at last consented to the peace of Adrianople, in September, 1829, and soon afterwards the London Conference resulted in the protocol of the 3rd of February, 1830, which recognised the independence of Greece, established an hereditary monarchy, and appointed Otho I., of the house of Bavaria, as king, in May, 1830.



THE NEW PERIOD OF REVOLUTIONS, FROM 1830.

THE BELGIAN REVOLUTION OF 1830.—THE NETHERLANDS.—THE INSURRECTION IN POLAND.—DEFEAT AT OSTROLENKA.—UTTER ANNIHILATION OF POLISH LIBERTY.—RULE OF THE EMPEROR NICHOLAS.—LITERARY AUTHORS AND WRITINGS OF THE PERIOD.—RETROSPECT OF THE STATE OF AFFAIRS.

THE BELGIAN REVOLUTION AND THE RISING OF POLAND.—THE NETHERLANDS.

WITH difficulty had the Holy Alliance for fifteen years maintained the conditions which had been created by the Vienna Congress. At last the news of the July Revolution in Paris awoke in the hearts of all the down-trodden and oppressed a hope and desire for a change. The example of France was first imitated by the neighbouring country of Belgium, which, regardless of difference of nature, religion, language, and interests, united itself with the Dutch provinces into the kingdom of the Netherlands. The Dutch, however, who regarded themselves as the dominant people, were despotic and oppressive in their treatment of the Belgians, and speedily aroused a spirit of revolt. The insurrection soon gained large proportions; the Belgians made entire separation from Holland their aim, and endeavoured to wrest the town of Antwerp from the hands of their hated neighbour. The five great Powers met for a conference in London, when it was decided, after lengthy diplomatic negotiations, in which Talleyrand took part in the interest of the Government of July, that the independence of Belgium should be

recognised and its boundaries on the Dutch side regulated, and Leopold of Saxe-Coburg was appointed king (June, 1831).

Poland.—The successful issue of the French and Belgian revolutions at last roused the Poles to insurrection. Although under Russian supremacy, Poland had attained to a higher prosperity than during its former anarchy; nevertheless the foreign rule had many opponents among the higher classes, the officials and the military, and a strong opposition arose, which ultimately developed into secret conspiracies. Nevertheless, owing to the divided interests and aims of the different party-leaders, and the hazardous position of the country between three absolute kingdoms, the Poles would scarcely have resolved on a general rising, had not the news of the Paris Revolution acted as a spark on the inflammable material, and awakened in the excitable nation an enthusiasm which led to speedy action, and put an end to all scruples and deliberation. On the 29th of November, 1830, some armed students from the University forced their way into the palace of the vice-king, in order to put him to death, while other conspirators summoned the people of the capital to arms. Only with difficulty did Constantine escape the fate intended for him, and two days later escaped with his Russian soldiers and officials from the land. A provisional government was now established, of which Chlopicki, formerly commander of the army, was appointed dictator. The new ruler, with his aristocratic advisers, immediately entered into negotiations with the Emperor, but quarrels and dissensions prevented any arrangement being arrived at, and the Emperor Nicholas commenced preparations for despatching an army of 120,000 men into Poland. Confused by the diverse and conflicting feelings that were afloat with regard to war or reconciliation, Chlopicki determined to resign his dictatorship. His successor as commander-in-chief was the wealthy Prince Radzivil; and a few days later the Diet proclaimed that the Emperor Nicholas and the house of Romanoff had forfeited the crown of Poland (Jan., 1831). A fierce struggle now commenced, in which the Poles gained several successes, and marked their course by many brilliant feats of arms. The Russian general, Diebitsch, was completely defeated in the bloody battle of Praga on the 19th and 20th of February, and his projected attack on Warsaw was frustrated. In the following April, however, he succeeded in obtaining a victory over the Polish troops in the battle of Ostrolenka, which proved the turning-point in the Polish revolution. Dissensions, party animosity, treachery, and the syren voices of French mediators, rapidly brought about the Poles' destruction. In the autumn of the same year Krukowiecki, a general of democratic principles, was appointed by the Diet President of the



NICHOLAS OF RUSSIA.

Government, with dictatorial powers ; he however evinced on every emergency great pusillanimity and want of decision ; the army still bravely resisted the onslaughts of the enemy, but with no avail ; in the beginning of September Krukowiecki abandoned Warsaw and Praga to the Russian field-marshal, and then surrendered himself to the victorious enemy as a prisoner of war. The Emperor then granted an amnesty, and allowed most of the army to return to their own homes. Distrusting the pardon of the angry Emperor, however, the Polish patriots turned their backs in thousands on their native land, and wandered to France, England, Switzerland, and other countries, rather preferring to eat the bread of adversity in a free though foreign land, than to witness patiently the gradual annihilation of the Polish nationality. In Poland, Lithuania, and other provinces, cruel punishments were inflicted on the guilty ; and the snowy plains of Siberia were populated with the condemned patriots. Those who had quitted the country forfeited their property, rank, and civil rights. Through an imperial ordinance passed in February, 1832, Poland lost its Constitution, Diet, and council-chamber, and was incorporated as a Russian province, with a separate government and administration of the law. The universities of Warsaw and Wilna were closed, the treasures of art were carried to Russia, and the national army was disbanded.

Modern Foreign Literature.—Italy.—Retrospect.

THE creative power of the Italians had in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries gradually fallen away. They began to appropriate the treasures of the great past, and to imitate the works of their forefathers. Petrarch and Ariosto both served as models to modern writers, and among the most distinguished imitators of the latter were Gabr. Chiasbrera, of Savona (1552–1673), the composer of five epic poems, and Fortiguerra (1674–1735) of Rome. Also the special development of poetic art, the true comic epic, was derived from Ariosto. The principal writers of the period in lyric poetry were Testi (1593–1646), Guidi (1650–1712), and Filicaja of Florence (1642), the author of several beautiful odes and sonnets. More powerful and artistic, however, did the Italians show themselves in dramatic poetry, and especially in the opera and melodrama ; while in prose literature, besides the greatest Italian poet of recent times, Alexander Manzoni, of Milan (1784–1873), author of *Inni sacri*, and the well-known romance *I promessi Sposi*, there were the historical writers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, Muratori, Giannone, Tiraboschi, Colletta, etc.

England. Popular Poetry.—In the second half of the eighteenth century, English literature gradually freed itself from French influence, and returned once more to its national peculiarities, native subject-matter, and poets. This return to the past had in England the special result of causing an attempt to bring the mediæval period more closely within the range of knowledge of the younger generation, by the collection of ancient ballads and popular poetry (Macpherson's Ossian, Bishop Percy's Reliques, etc.), or by romances and historical descriptions of the life of the past. Scotland, however, was the first to deviate from the artificiality of French taste ; and

a number of Scotch poets, principally belonging to the lower classes, opposed to the artificial French poetry a simple, heart-felt poetic art, which had its source in the noble and thoughtful nature of the people themselves. The first of such writers were Allan Ramsay (1686–1758), author of "The Gentle Shepherd," Fergusson (1751–1774), and Lady Barnard (1750–1825), the writer of "Auld Robin Gray." But the characteristic Scotch national poet and popular favourite was Robert Burns (1759–1796), a poor peasant of Ayr. The depressing conditions from which he suffered all through life, were not able to stifle his innate poetic talent, yet they clogged his flight, and filled his genial, musical nature with gloom and despondency. The unmixed delight with which Burns's poems were everywhere greeted, had the result of causing this species of poetry to be immoderately cultivated; and the number of so-called natural poets in Scotland increased enormously. Among such, the following are conspicuous: Joanna Baillie (1765–1851), the friend of Walter Scott, Allan Cunningham (1784–1842), and the so-called Ettrick shepherd, James Hogg (1772–1835), who, inspired by old legends and popular songs, began to make poems while but a shepherd-boy, before he had even learnt to read or write. Among his numerous works the best known is the "Queen's Wake," a collection of ballads and tales. Many of these ingenious popular poems had also a satirical and epigrammatic tendency. In this branch of poetry Thomas Hoggart, a relative of the famous painter Hogarth, was also distinguished. But the greatest influence was exercised on modern literature, not only in England but also on the Continent, by the great "Wizard of the North," the many-sided, fertile Scotch poet, Walter Scott, of Edinburgh (1771-1832), who, besides being an indefatigable and judicious collector of old national ballads, drew upon the facts of history for his epic narratives and romances—the Waverley Novels—in which he depicted attractive pictures of the life of the past by a free colouring of the habits, manners, and institutions of various nations, and by admirable delineations of the characters of the different personages.



BURNS.

Natural Poetry.—The Lake School.—At this period, also, successful attempts were made in England to replace French taste and a conventional poetic art by a truthful realistic poetry of nature and popular ballads and songs. After



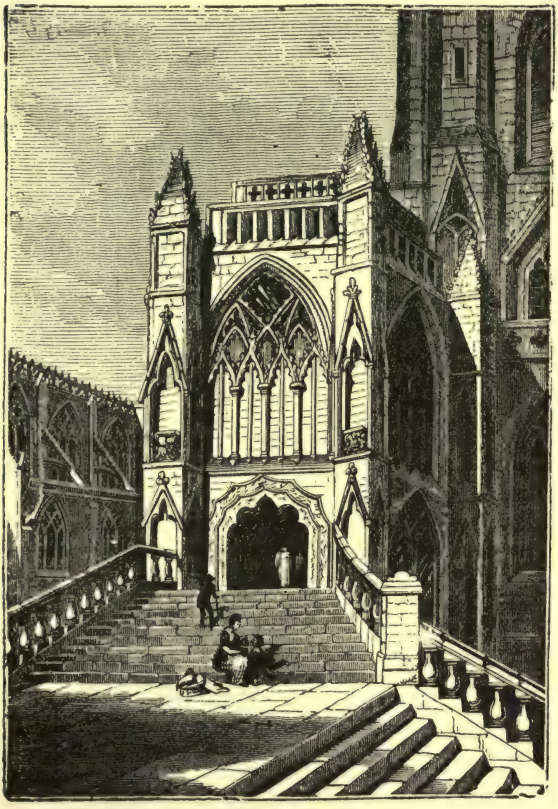
SIR WALTER SCOTT.

Thomson and Young, who were the first to represent outward nature and the inner soul of man with feeling and earnestness, followed William Cowper (1731-1800), a poet filled with religious zeal almost amounting to fanaticism, and afflicted with a diseased melancholy, who, in his didactic poem, "The Task," evidences a warm sentiment for justice, liberty, and country; and in his humorous ballad "John Gilpin," revives the old English style of popular narrative poetry. Still more famous was the ballad, "Admiral Hosier's Ghost," by Richard Glover (1712-85). "The Bard," the "Ode on a Distant Prospect of Eton," and the "Elegy" of Thomas Gray, maintain their wide-spread popularity to the present day. The many-sided Oliver Goldsmith also (1729-74), famous as a poet, historian, critic, and agreeable romance writer, who "touched nothing that he did not adorn," has, in his ballads, songs, etc., struck the true note of popular poetry, and presented a truthful portrayal of nature. His tender and humorous romance, "The Vicar of Wakefield," is one



THOMAS CHATTERTON.

of the most generally read works of fiction of any nation. A gifted and highly imaginative poet was the unfortunate Thomas Chatterton (1752–70), of Bristol, who, after a strenuous attempt to push his fortunes in London, committed suicide, when a youth of eighteen, in a fit of melancholy, caused by wounded pride and extreme poverty. The achievements of this marvellous boy are unequalled by any other author so young. George Crabbe (1754-1832), the poet of real life, first a surgeon and then a minister of religion, author of "The Village," "Tales," etc., was distinguished by his truthful and vivid descriptions of nature. He depicted country life with all its squalor and sin, not according to the pastoral fiction.



ST. MARY, REDCLYFFE, BRISTOL.

Of a nobler and more elevated style stands forth the natural art of *William Wordsworth* (1770–1850), a great traveller and student, who in his little country cottage at Rydal-water, Westmoreland, devoted himself entirely to the poetic art, and to the contemplation of nature; his principal works are "The Excursion," "Peter Bell," "The Wagoner," sonnets, ballads, etc. A friend of Wordsworth, though widely different in character, and possessing far less fertility of genius, was Samuel Taylor Coleridge, of Ottery St. Mary, Devonshire (1772–1834). He was an original poet, of glowing imagination and deep sensibility; with him, admiration for nature amounted to a kind of mystic natural symbolism, which is especially noticeable in his works "Christobel," "The Ancient Mariner," as well as in some of his ballads and smaller lyric poems. *Robert Southey* (1774–1843), the third of the "Lake-poets," a cultivated and fertile writer, selected lyric poetry as his especial field of labour; his principal works are, "The Curse of Kehama," "Wat Tyler," a number of ballads, and a capital Life of Nelson, etc. The writings of the Scotch poet *John Wilson* (1785–1854) also were disinguished by a masculine beauty and vigorous style.

Among didactic poets may be mentioned *Samuel Rogers*, of London (1762–1855), author of the "Voyage of Columbus," "Jacqueline," "Italy," and numerous tuneful lyrics; *Thomas Campbell* (1777–1844), whose stirring "Hohenlinden," "Battle of the Baltic," and other ballads, will last as long as the literature of England; a Scotch writer, *James Montgomery*, son of

a preacher of Ayrshire. *Felicia Hemans* (1794–1835) stands pre-eminent among the English poetesses of her time for her depth of feeling as well as for her perfection of poetic style. The "Songs of the Cid," "Lays of Many Lands," besides many short pieces, lays, and ballads are included among her works. Two equally gifted poetesses also are *Caroline Norton*, niece of the famous Sheridan, and *Elizabeth Barrett Browning* (1809), "the Byron among English poetesses," author of the "Sorrows of Rosalie," "The Dream," the "Child of the Islands," and "A Drama of Exile," "The Cry of the Children," "the Rhyme of Duchess May," etc. Her husband, Robert Browning, a poet bearing some similarity in his style to Shelley, is the author of many dramatic poems and other works.



FELICIA HEMANS.

Lord Byron. The greatest name among poets in modern England, is that of Lord Byron (1788–1824). From him and from his friends, Thomas Moore, Percy Bysshe Shelley, and others, arose the most genial creations of modern English poetry. Lord Byron, a man of high poetic gifts and lofty imagination, but of excitable, ungovernable temperament, led an aimless life of wandering, by which he endeavoured to still the ardour of his soul, until, having taken up the cause of the freedom of Greece, he met his death through a fever at Missolonghi. He has embodied all the experiences of his extensive travels in his two larger lyric poems, "Childe Harold" and the unfinished "Don Juan;" besides these, his chief poems are "The Corsair," "The Bride of Abydos," "The Giaour," "Alp, or the Siege of Corinth," with dramas, lyrics, ballads, etc. An enthusiast for liberty, Byron availed himself of the Greek struggle for independence to express his hatred of tyranny and his love of liberty in some noble poems; and that his words proceeded from innate conviction was proved by his participation in the dangerous conflicts in Greece.



LORD BYRON.

Thomas Moore, and the most recent Lyric Poets.

THE friend of Lord Byron with whom he remained in long intercourse, the Irishman Thomas Moore (1780–1852), commencing with a translation of Anacreon's light and cheerful poems, at last won the palm of lyric poetry by his charming "Irish Melodies," which remain a noble record of patriotic feeling and warm devotion to the unfortunate green isle. Worthy to be ranked with these "Irish Melodies" are the "Sacred Songs" and "National Songs," besides his most important work, the Eastern poem "Lalla Rookh." Among his other writings is his biography of the poet and parliamentary orator, Sheridan (1752–1816), the author of the witty comedy, "The School for Scandal." A highly-gifted poet, of extremely sceptical views, was Percy

Bysshe Shelley (1792–1822). Banished from Oxford on account of his heterodox opinions, rejected by his father because of his unfortunate marriage, and deprived by a legal sentence of the custody of his children, Shelley led a restless life, clouded by constant mental conflicts and bodily infirmities, until, while still in early manhood, he was drowned in a sudden storm while endeavouring to sail in an open boat from Leghorn to Lerici. His body, cast up by the waves, was burnt by the direction of his friend Lord Byron, and the ashes placed in the pyramid of Cestius at Rome. In his principal work, "Queen Mab," he brought the measure of philosophical speculation to bear on political, religious, and social conditions, which he wished to remodel in accordance with a boundless individual liberty. More powerful in form as well as more concrete in matter, is "Alastor," a poem tinged with a breath



THOMAS MOORE.

of melancholy; while his dramatic poems, "Prometheus Unbound," and "Hellas," served him for the glorification of liberty and of the Greek struggle for independence. In the touching elegy, "Adonais," he laments the premature death of the youthful poet, *John Keats* (1796–1820), who died in Rome, the author of the melancholy poems "Endymion," "Hyperion," etc. Besides these poets, who for a longer or shorter period took up their abode in Italy, may be added *Walter Savage Landor* (1775–1864), the enthusiastic worshipper of an ideal liberty, which he glorified in Latin and English verses, "Heroic Idyls," "Imaginary Conversations," "Helenics," etc., and the critic and satirist, *Leigh Hunt* (1784–1859).

The most prominent among all living poets at the present time is Alfred Tennyson (born 1810), the son of an English clergyman. He is the successor

of Wordsworth and Southey in the honourable post of Poet Laureate, and besides the sorrowful lament, "In Memoriam," dedicated to the memory of a dead friend, he has produced the three romances, "The Princess," "Maud," and "King Arthur," besides "Enoch Arden," etc.



Worthy to be ranked with the poets of the mother-country are several of the North American writers of modern times; but notwithstanding that many of them, such as Bryant, Henry Dana, and especially the imaginative and cultured Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807–1881), met with recognition even in the Old World, yet English literature still forms the main intellectual resource of Americans. Longfellow's best-known work is his "Evangeline," after the style of Goethe's "Hermann und Dorothea," his most original and interesting one, "The Song of Hiawatha."

Dramatic poetry was also fostered in England at this period, though with less success than the lyric art, in spite of many distinguished actors and actresses, such as Kemble, Kean, Macready, and Mrs. Siddons, who endeavoured, by the artistic representation of Shakespeare's plays, to arouse a taste and interest for the true national drama. Among the most famous dramatic writers are Knowles (1784–1862), the Irish member of Parliament, Lalor Shiel, Milman, and Judge Talfourd (1795–1854), who in his simple tragedies "Ion" and the "Athenian Captive" sought once more to revive the Greek drama.



ALFRED TENNYSON.

Romance and History.—In the special branch of historical romance in England, Walter Scott has remained the incomparable model; among his imitators and followers may be mentioned James, a fertile but not very genial writer, the American James Fenimore Cooper (1789–1851), and more recently Wilkie Collins, Charles Kingsley, Anthony Trollope, Benjamin Disraeli, Charles Lever, Charles Reade, George Eliot, Bulwer Lytton, Dickens, and Thackeray.

Besides these should be mentioned the writer known as "Elia," Charles Lamb (1775–1834), famous both as an agreeable lyric and dramatic writer, and especially as the author of sketches and stories ("Tales from Shakespeare"); and the American Washington Irving (1783–1859), of New

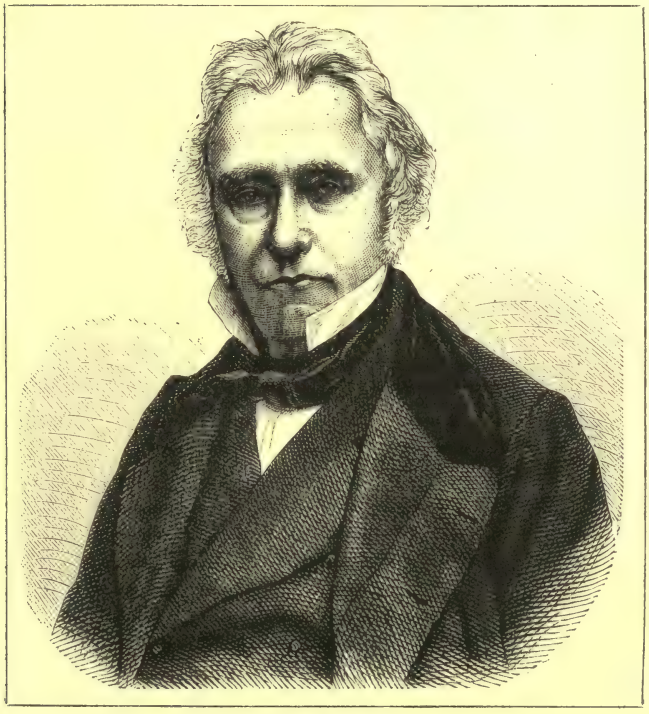
York. The latter, after long travels in all the European countries, having become conversant with the habits and peculiarities of most of the peoples, has given in his widely-read "Sketch-book," an attractive picture of English and American life; and in the "Alhambra" has presented a masterly picture of the romantic period of Spain under the dominion of the Moors. He also devoted his powers to numerous historical writings, though in this branch of literature he is not to be compared in earnestness and solidity to his two countrymen, Prescott, and Bancroft, author of the "United States of America."



SCENE FROM TENNYSON'S "PRINCESS."

Thomas Carlyle (born 1795–1882) was an earnest student of German literature, which he endeavoured to make accessible to his countrymen by skilful translations ("Wilhelm Meister," etc.), and by biographies ("Life of Schiller"). His other works include his graphic account of the French Revolution, and his more recent work, the "History of Frederick the Great." J. Dunlop's works on the history of literature, Lord Brougham's biographies of famous statesmen, and a large number of works on different portions of national history (Palgrave, Disraeli, Godwin), as well as many compilations of

ancient history, bear witness to the great activity of English writers in the department of history, and the interest of the nation in its great past. Among all who have hitherto devoted their powers to the investigation and description of historical events, Thomas Babington (Lord) Macaulay (1800–1860), renowned both as a statesman and orator, as an intelligent critic and as a poet, takes the first rank by virtue of his unfinished "History of England," in which he combines with a deep insight into the conditions, nature, and characteristics of the different personalities, an impartial sense of justice and historical truth, a generous judgment, and a clear and luminous style. Among his poems, the "Lays of Ancient Rome" and "The Battle of Ivry" are the best.



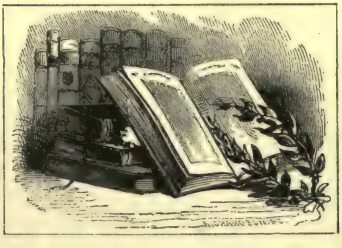
LORD MACAULAY.



LITERATURE AND ART IN FRANCE AND GERMANY.

FRANCE.—LITERATURE AND POLITICS.—CREBILLON AND DE SADE.—MADAME ROLAND.—CONDORÇET.—ROUGET DE L'ISLE.—LEBRUN.—CONSTITUTIONAL TENDENCY. — MADAME DE STAËL. — CHATEAUBRIAND.—LAMARTINE.—VICTOR HUGO AND HIS WORKS.—ALFRED DE VIGNY.—OPPOSITION TO THE CLASSICAL SCHOOL.—LA HARPE, ARNAULT, BARTHÉLEMY, ETC. — BÉRANGER. — SOCIAL ROMANCE WRITERS.—BALZAC, EUGÈNE SUE.—MADAME DUDEVANT (GEORGES SAND), ETC.; DUMAS THE ELDER AND THE YOUNGER.—HISTORIANS.—GUIZOT, BARANTE, THIERS, MICHELET, MIGNET, ETC.—MUSIC.—PALESTRINA, PERI, SCARLATTI, ETC.; GLUCK, HAYDN, MOZART, BEETHOVEN, SCHUBERT, ETC.; CHERUBINI, BOIELDIEU, WEBER, MEYERBEER, WAGNER, MENDELSSOHN.

FRANCE.—POLITICAL CHARACTER OF FRENCH LITERATURE.



IN no country in Europe is literature so closely connected with public life, or does it exercise such an influence on customs and habits of thought as in France. It gives the tone to society, enters into politics, and has the most intimate connection with public affairs. Thus the moral degeneracy and the degradation of religion which preceded the Revolution were first shadowed forth in literature. The immoral works of the younger Crebillon, the Marquis de Sade, and others, showed how completely the foundations of society were undermined, when the Revolution, like a Divine decree, completely overthrew that effete and worthless system, to reconstruct the social fabric on a new basis. Heavy blows were struck at existing evils and abuses in the masterly plays of Beaumarchais (1732–1799), in which the frivolity and egotistical indifference to the welfare of society exhibited by the upper classes are represented with all the magic of art, and with striking reality.

One of the noblest figures of the Revolutionary period was Madame Roland, *née* Philipon (1764–1793), the most active and enterprising member of the Girondist party at the time of its supremacy. With a lofty enthusiasm for liberty and human rights, this remarkable woman combined a warm admiration of the republican and patriotic heroism of the ancient world. And when she was awakened from her dream, and in the name of that liberty which was her cherished idol was led away to the prison which she was soon afterwards to exchange for the scaffold, she proved what tranquillity and greatness can dwell in a woman's soul when filled with ideal aspirations, by writing her interesting memoirs, her record of political opinion, even in the presence of death. The political views and fate of Madame Roland and her party were shared by the Marquis de Condorçet (1743–1794), member of the French Academy, and a fertile and ingenious writer. On the overthrow of the Gironde he found an asylum with a generous friend, and there wrote the excellent work: "*Esquisse d'un tableau historique des progrès de l'esprit humain.*" But when a decree was issued by which all who harboured suspected persons were threatened with death, he left his place of refuge, dressed in beggar's clothes, and wandered about till he was recognised and captured. In prison he took poison, which he always carried about his person. Among the poets of the Revolutionary period are Rouget de l'Isle (1760–1835), the writer and composer of the "Marseillaise" hymn; Lebrun (1729–1807), celebrated for his odes and witty epigrams; and Marie Joseph Chénier and his unfortunate brother André Chénier (1762–1794), who having given offence to the republican party by some of his writings, was imprisoned, and forfeited his life on the scaffold. He was executed only two days before the fall of Robespierre.



MADAME ROLAND.

Constitutional Tendency.—While Madame Roland was the most important representative of the cultured democratic idealism of Rousseau, her intellectual contemporary, Madame de Staël (1766–1817), was the representative of the constitutionalism extolled by Montesquieu. The daughter of the Protestant banker and minister Necker, she belonged to that circle of French women who, by their genius, culture, and social gifts, succeeded in securing

for themselves a prominent position in the higher circles of the French capital. Her works may be divided into three classes—political, æsthetic-social, and poetical—and include "Considerations of the French Revolution," the intellectual work on "Literature in its Relation to Social Institutions," a book on "Germany," and the well-known Letters, as well as the two romances "Delphine" and "Corinne."

With romantic poetry the name of Chateaubriand is chiefly identified. The philosophical materialism of the eighteenth century had, in the atheistical and blasphemous teachings of the men of the Revolution, reached the climax of scepticism. It was therefore natural that after the overthrow of the Revolution an attempt should be made to re-animate the religious feeling of the people, and by means of Christianity to heal the breaches made by heterodox philosophy. Madame de Staël had already in her writings indicated the necessity of a religious revival, and during the Consulate of Napoleon, had held friendly intercourse with the Vicomte de Chateaubriand (1768–1848), the founder of Christian romanticism in France. Bonaparte himself, as well as his brothers and sisters, favoured this tendency in literature as promoting the restoration of social and political order. When, therefore, Chateaubriand returned to France after his sojourn in America, where he had taken refuge on the outbreak of the Revolution, he was gladly welcomed, and gratified with honours and favours, on the publication of his great poetic work, the "Spirit of Christianity." This book, which carries Christianity entirely into the regions of the beautiful, makes religion an object of æsthetic enjoyment. Chateaubriand disclosed his Catholic philosophy and poetic religion in his narratives and poetical apologues. His writings were the Bible of the lords and ladies of the *salon*, to whose fastidious and perverted taste the Christianity of the Bible itself appeared too bare and too dry. After the death of the Duc d'Enghien, Chateaubriand, in horror and disgust, broke off all connection with the ruling house of Napoleon. Having made a long sojourn in Italy and Switzerland, he took a journey to Greece, Egypt, and Jerusalem, the account of which is given in his "*Itinéraire*," and in his epic poem "The Martyrs." Chateaubriand's lyric poetry was continued by Alphonse de Lamartine (1792–1869), of Maçon, the author of the valuable "*Histoire des Girondins—Trois Mois au Pouvoir*," etc. His two great poems, the epic-lyric idyl "Jocelin," and the "Fall of an Angel," are rich in charming descriptions and singular beauties, though irregular and fantastic as a poetical whole. After his election, in his thirtieth year, as a deputy to the Second Chamber, Lamartine gradually renounced the legitimist views he had formerly held, and became the champion of humanitarian idealism. As the enthusiastic upholder of all liberal views and propositions, he soon became an influential leader of the opposition. The political activity and frequent modification of opinion of Chateaubriand and Lamartine were shared by the third head of the romantic school, Victor Hugo (born 1802). This distinguished man was the son of a Bonapartist officer, and of a Bourbon partisan mother, and he imbibed in his earliest youth very varied and even opposite political impressions. Nevertheless, the mother's influence was at first entirely paramount, and in his earliest lyric poems, entitled "Odes and Ballads," he appeared as a zealous royalist, and thus obtained the favour of Louis XVIII., and a yearly pension. He was subsequently an enthusiastic admirer of Napoleon, to whom he did homage in one of his most beautiful odes; and under Louis Philippe, when he was appointed a member of the Academy, as well as under the second republic, he took his place as a deputy in the National Assembly. The transformation from an enthusiastic partisan of

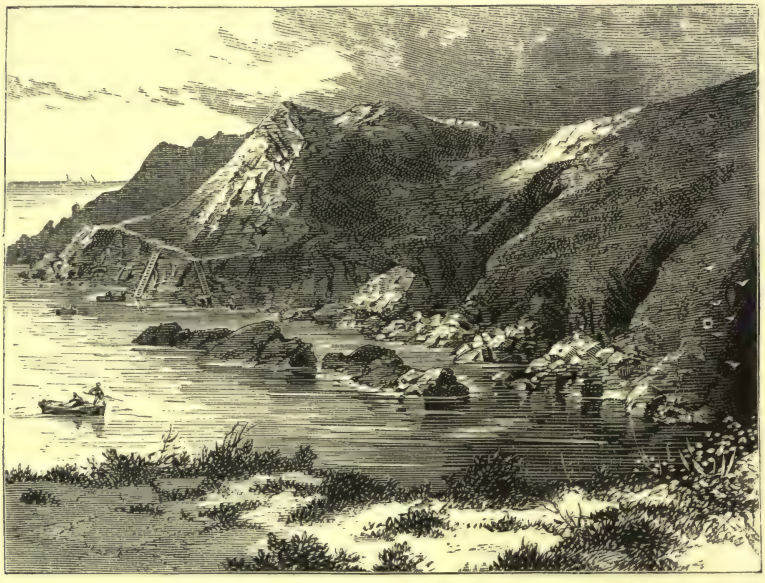
the Restoration to an ardent Bonapartist, through which he passed, is described by the hero in "Les Misérables." The exposition of this psychological process belongs to the best and truest of Hugo's works; it is represented in a very masterly and forcible fashion. Victor Hugo has made for himself a name alike as a lyric and dramatic author and a romance writer; yet he is most distinguished in the first branch. The best known among his dramatic works are "Cromwell," "Hermani," "Le Roi s'amuse," "Lucretia Borgia," "Marion Delorne," once a much-admired work, etc. His romances, with the exception of the mediæval picture of manners, "Nôtre Dame de Paris," are full of the most intense mental suffering and sorrow. After the revolution of February,



VICTOR HUGO.

being chosen as the zealous champion of republican opinions in the National Assembly, he soon made himself prominent by his enthusiastic orations in favour of religious and political liberty; until, as the vehement opponent of the president Louis Napoleon in all his ambitious schemes after the *coup d'état* of the 2nd December, 1851, he was compelled to fly from France. In order to revenge himself, he launched against his successful enemy, from his place of exile, the cutting satire "Napoléon le Petit," and the poem "Les Châtiments." After the catastrophe of Sedan, on the 2nd September, 1870, and the establishment of the third republic, he quitted the island of Guernsey, where he had dwelt during his long exile, and returned again to Paris, where he took up his residence once more.

Among other writers of the romantic school are Alfred de Vigny (1798–1863), author of several epic-lyric poems and romances ; Quinet (1803–1875), who, in his dramatic poem "Ahasver," endeavoured, though in a very confused manner, to transplant German romance into France, while he undertook, in his "Prometheus," to blend Hellenism and Christianity, and, in his "Napoleon," cast around the hero of the century a romantic light. Arlincourt (1789–1856), Xavier de Maistre (1764–1852), Toepffer (1799–1846), were other writers of the period.



VIEW IN GUERNSEY.

The Opposition.

THE romantic school was too one-sided to escape contradiction and rivalry. The classical writers, though antiquated in style and apparently defeated, carried on a violent conflict with the new romantic art of poetry—a strife which only proved disadvantageous to themselves, because the strength of the disputants was unequal. Many of the classical authors, such as La Harpe, Arnault, Jouy, etc., were not in a position to cope with the talented writers of romantic poetry ; and even the fertile writer Madame de Genlis (1746–1830), and Delille, the translator of Virgil, could not compete with the works of a De Staël and a Chateaubriand. Among other writers of this class are Barthélemy (1716–1795), Paul Louis Courier (1772–1825), who, after following a military career, devoted himself to political-satirical literature, and the still more important writer, Béranger (1786–1857), who, in his noble songs, gave the most perfect expression of the French national character. In the same degree as Béranger, though in a different form, Alfred de Musset (1810–1857) may also be regarded, in his time, as a true son of his people, a representative of his nation. He wrote the poems "Quatre Nuits," romances "Confessions d'un Enfant du Siècle," and dramas. His smaller pieces, "Comédies et Proverbes," are the most characteristic of his writings, and are incomparable in their elegance and gracefulness of language.

Social Romance Writers.—The first writer who devoted his powers to the portrayal of the family and social life of the present time was Honoré de Balzac (1799–1850), who made the nineteenth century with its social phenomena and tendencies the special field of his labours. The real creatress of the literary school of social romance, however, was Madame Dudevant (born 1804), known under the name of Georges Sand, of the province of Berry, who united the mysticism and sensibility of the earlier romanticists with the democratic sentiments of liberal literature and the tendencies and aspirations of modern socialism, into a new and artistically finished species of literature, which speedily attained a wide popularity, and outshone all similar productions.



BÉRANGER.

Her works include, "Indiana," "Valentine," "Simon," "André," "Jacques," "Lelia," "Le Marquis de Villemer," "L'Homme de Neige," etc.

The approval with which Georges Sand's romances were received soon led others along the same path. Next to her in renown, though not in depth and fulness of thought, is Eugène Sue (1804–1857), the author of realistic romances and historical novels, though he won his greatest renown by the portrayal of social conditions and tendencies, as in the "Mysteries of Paris," "The Seven Deadly Sins," "The Wandering Jew," etc.

The most fertile writers in the department of descriptive literature were

the two Alexander Dumas, father and son. The father of the elder Dumas died at an early age, so that Alexander received only an elementary education, but made up for his deficient opportunities by his talent and industry. His novels include, "The Three Musketeers," the "Vicomte de Bragelone," and the "Comte de Monte Christo." His principal interest always remained devoted to the stage; while many of his son's romances were adapted for dramatic performance. Among historical writers may be mentioned Guizot (1787–1874), author of "The History of the Civilization of France in the Middle Ages," "The History of the English Revolution," and other works; Barante (1782–1865), the brothers Thierry, and Capefigue (born 1799). Jules

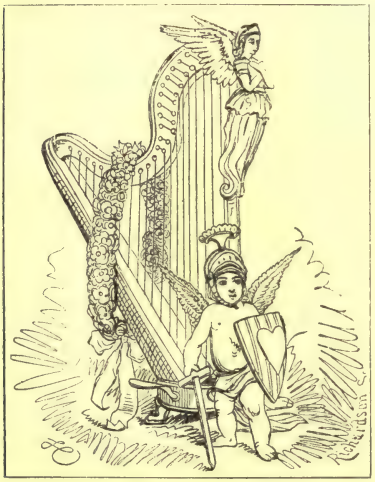


GEORGES SAND.

Michelet (1798–1874), the author of a comprehensive history of France, and in more recent times a zealous democrat and enemy of the Jesuits, sought to combine the pragmatic philosophy of the older school with the modern and more descriptive style, and has quite recently, in his book "The Bible of Humanity," endeavoured to influence the religious sentiments of the people. Similar, half-philosophical, half-journalistic writers are Jules Simon and Eugène Pelletan. A graphic work on the war of the Fronde is from the pen of Comte St. Aulaire (1779–1854); and in the history of literature, Raynouard, Fauriel, Ampère, Nisard, Ginguené (died 1816, "History of the

Literature of Italy"), and Saint Beuve, have done valuable work, and made important investigations. Saint Beuve's principal work is a history of the Port-Royal; and his reviews and criticisms, which used to appear every Monday in a newspaper, the "*Constitutionnel*," and which are now collected under the title of "Causeries du Lundi," are the best works that have ever been written in this style. F. A. A. Mignet (born 1796) has described the great historical epoch of the Revolution and the empire; and Ad. Thiers (1797–1877), in his detailed history of the Revolution, paved the way towards the high position which he occupied in France from 1830. His later "History of the Consulate and the Empire" is, like Vignon's diplomatic history of this period, a rhetorical partisan effusion, full of vaingloriousness. Also the great statesman Ch. de Tocqueville (1805–1859), who had studied in England and America the character and operations of popular institutions, made himself renowned by his historical work, "The History of Louis XV.," and "The Old Régime and the Revolution"; while Louis Blanc's "History of the Ten Years" (1830–1840), and "History of the French Revolution," had, in common with his other socialistic writings, a great influence on the revolution of February.

Recent Art—Music.



THE development of church music, which had an important effect, and which reached its climax in Palestrina, as well as the gradual increase of individual musical expression through the aid of instrumental music down to Bach and Handel, opened out at the same time a free path for dramatic music. In the hope of bringing ancient tragedy into a newer form, an attempt was made at the academy at Florence to find something which should compensate for the musical declamation of the old Greeks; then the form of *recitative* was established. On the 6th February, 1600, the first performance of an opera of this style by Jacopo Peri took place in celebration of the wedding of Henry IV. of France with Marie de Medicis. But among the musical and melody-loving people of Italy, the musically declaimed discourse made but little impression; then recitative became more lively, melody was introduced, and in the seventeenth century the development of the opera was accomplished. The great musician Alessandro Scarlatti (1689–1759), who has been already mentioned as a composer of church music, heads the commencement of the history of modern opera in Italy. From his school and that of Francisco Durante have proceeded a large number of remarkable composers of Italian opera, among whom Piccini, Jomelli, and Pergolese are the best known. In the year 1645 the first Italian opera company came to Paris, and less by the genius than the skill of the Florentine Lully, it was successfully adapted to the French taste, so that he and his pupil Rameau, the nephew of Diderot, remained for upwards of a century supreme over the stage in Paris. While in Italy church music was forfeiting its privileged position

through the influence of the opera, in Paris musical reform was originated by a German artist, whose appearance marks the commencement of the more modern German music in its noblest manifestation. Christopher von Gluck (1714–1787) was the founder of classical opera music. In the year 1762 his "Orpheus" was produced at Vienna, and was afterwards followed by "Alceste," "Armida," "Iphygenia in Aulis." The conflict between the Italian school and the new classical opera music was played out in Paris, and the rivalry between the two representatives of these systems, Piccini and Gluck, ended with the complete victory of the great masterpiece of the latter, the "Iphygenia in Aulis." Gluck died at Vienna in 1787. Attempts at a popular development of the drama were made in Germany in the operas of J. A. Hiller, Schenk, and Wenzel Müller.

We now turn to German instrumental music, the founder and originator of



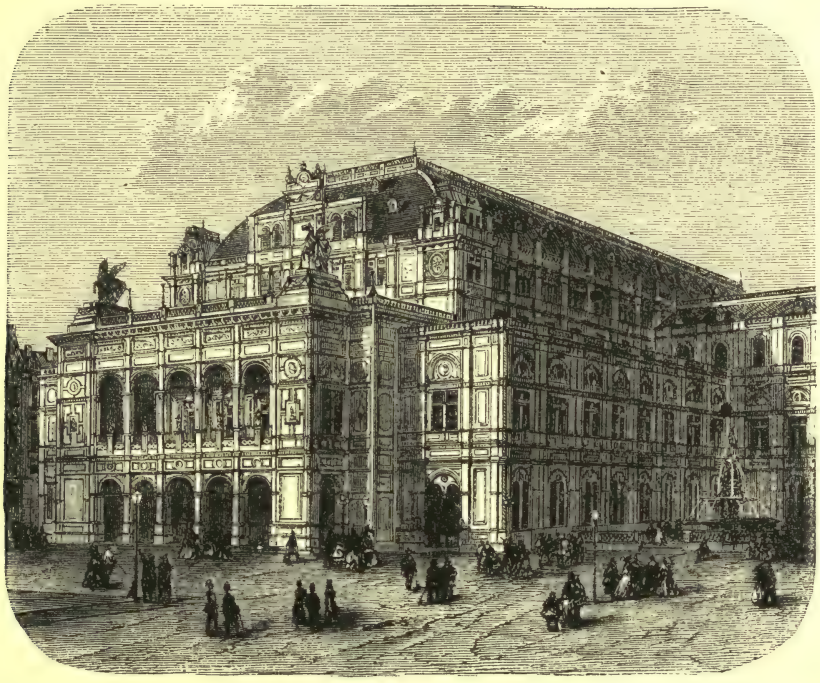
GLUCK. MOZART.

which, Joseph Haydn (1732–1809), is known under the name of "Papa Haydn" throughout the entire musical world. Born in 1732, at Rohrau, in Austria, he earned his bread as a poor chorister boy in Vienna, and then for thirty years was private capelmeister to Prince Esterhazy. To him we owe the finished form of the sonata, the string quartette, and the symphony; he has left behind him 118 symphonies and 83 quartettes. First attaining, in his old age, to the full consciousness of his genius, and overwhelmed with favour in England, he commenced, when quite an old man, his greatest work, the "Creation," and shortly before his death he wrote the "Seasons." He died at Vienna, in the year 1809.

Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756–1791), of Salzburg, was at an early age taken about from place to place as an infant prodigy, then became the badly paid servant of the Archbishop of Salzburg, until his subsequent liberation from these unworthy chains opened to him the martyrdom of musical

tuition. On his death-bed he received the appointment of capelmeister to the Church of St. Stephen. The series of his immortal works commences with "Idomeneo," and "Entführung aus dem Serail"; then follow the "Figaro," "Don Juan," the "Zauberflöte," besides his magnificent symphonies. Considering his short life, Mozart left behind him an almost incredible number of musical works. The string quartettes and some of the pianoforte concertos belong to the most beautiful of his compositions, as well as a selection of the sonatas which he wrote for his pupils. His last work is the marvellous "Requiem," which lay unfinished on his death-bed, when he, like Raphael, was summoned away in the thirty-fifth year of his age.

Devoting his highest and best powers to instrumental music, appears the last great representative of the classical period—Louis von Beethoven, born



OPERA HOUSE, VIENNA.

in 1770, at Bonn. Beethoven's music is powerful and impressive, because he experienced the meaning of life in his own passionate soul, and gives it the expression of an individual character-picture. Beethoven composed his greatest works while suffering from deafness. Never was there a more tragic fate. The nine symphonies were written in the period from 1799–1824. The series of string quartettes, the sonatas, which unfold a whole life-development, and finally the great works, "Fidelio," the music of "Egmont," and the last of his greatest works, the "*Missa Solemnis*,"—with these the great master confronts us. Beethoven died at Vienna, in 1827.

As a composer of songs, he has had a successor in Franz Schubert (1797–1828). The songs of Schubert, like the sonatas of Beethoven, exhibit the perfection of modern classical art. He is the favourite of youth and the joy of old age.

In his particular sphere he is direct as Mozart, and bold and powerful as Beethoven. His pianoforte and orchestral compositions possess great charm, though exhibiting less clearness of form and treatment. He died at the age of thirty-one, in 1828, at Vienna, which has been the home of all musicians.

In the further development of the opera in Italy, Germany, and France, the Mozartian models had the most important influence; while in comic opera, Paisiello, Fioravanti, and especially Cimarosa (1755–1801), may be mentioned as more or less approaching the same style. Among writers of



French opera are Spontini (1778–1851), the truest successor of Gluck; Cherubini, born at Florence, 1760, died in 1842, at Paris, a strictly classical writer, whose pure and elevated style is best exemplified in church and chamber music, particularly in his requiem and overtures. With his pupil Boieldieu (1775–1834), the lighter French element came to the front. Then followed Auber (1782–1871) with the smooth modern conversational operas, such as the genial "Fra Diavolo." Auber's style was also repeated by Herold and Flotow. The influence of Mozart had proved ineffective on the Auber

school, and his place was taken by Rossini (1792–1869), author of "Tancredi," "Barbiere di Seviglia," "Semiramide," "Tell," etc. Rossini is the Mozart of Italy, a master both of tragedy and comedy. In Bellini (1802–1835) a melancholy sentimentality preponderates ("Romeo and Juliet," "La Sonnambula"), which in "Norma" rises to true passion.

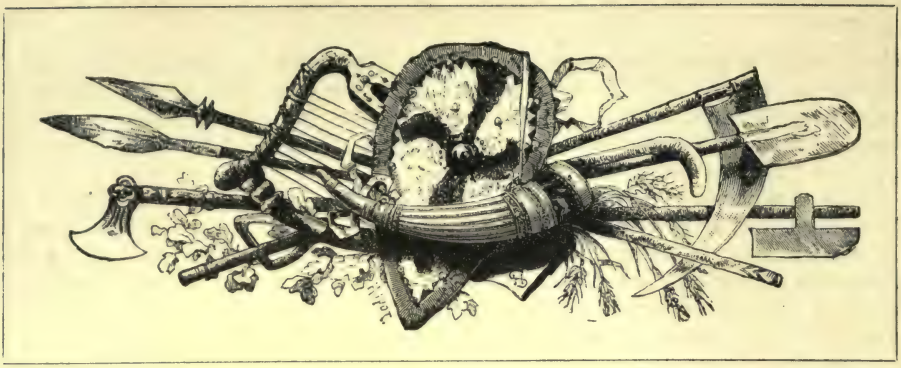
In Germany the romantic opera of Carl Maria von Weber (1786–1826) gave the noblest and most truly popular expression to the ideas excited by romantic poetry. Weber is pre-eminently a truly German composer, both in his noble war-songs as well as in his deeply national music to the opera "Preciosa," and his tuneful operas, "Der Freischütz," "Euryanthe," and "Oberon." Meyerbeer (1794–1864) endeavoured to conceal his deficiency in powerful and original invention by exaggerated musical effects, as evinced in his monster operas, "Robert the Devil," the "Huguenots," "Prophète," "L'Africaine."

A new epoch in German opera has been established by Richard Wagner (1813–1883). A follower of Gluck in principle, his muse directs him, not to simplicity, but to the extremes of exaggeration. He breaks through the limits of musical form to attain his dramatic aims.

No artist has ever so exasperated his enemies and created so much enthusiasm among his friends as Richard Wagner. A final judgment remains to be given by a subsequent history of art. His talents are best shown in the operas "Tannhäuser," "Lohengrin," "Meistersänger," "Rheingold," and "Walküre."

The present time, while unproductive in opera, is especially abounding in concert and chamber music. Clementi (1752–1832), Hummel, Fesca, Romberg, and others, and, above all, Spohr (1783–1859), form the older school, which found both its conclusion and its further development in Mendelssohn Bartholdy. Felix Mendelssohn Bartholdy—born at Hamburg, 1809, died at Leipzig in 1847—attained by his refinement, his masterly musical form, and finished instrumental *technique*, to the summit of musical aspiration, and justly became the highly esteemed favourite of the musical world. On the model of Handel, he created his "St. Paul" and "Elijah," his Psalms and motets. Among the freshest and most original of his compositions are the music of the "Midsummer Night's Dream," and the "Walpurgis Nacht"; while in his songs without words he has become, like Schubert in his songs with words, the household friend of all true lovers of music.

Among his special imitators, the original Dane, Niels Gade, takes the highest rank; while Robert Schumann—born at Zwickau, 1810, died at Bonn, 1856—turned his talents in a different direction. The latter is the favourite among modern musical composers. In song he ranks next to Schubert, while in greater works he has left behind him "Paradise and the Peri," "Manfred," "Faust," etc., besides his symphonies, which are among the finest that have been produced in modern times.



EUROPE AFTER THE JULY REVOLUTION OF 1830.

POLITICAL CONDITION OF NATIONS.—THE WEST CONSTITUTIONAL; THE EAST ABSOLUTE.—THE MINOR STATES: GERMANY, SPAIN, PORTUGAL, HOLLAND, BELGIUM, ETC.—THE KINGDOM OF GREECE.—THE REPUBLICS: SWITZERLAND AND THE UNITED STATES.—THE STRUGGLE OF NATIONALITIES.—THE WEST.—CENTRAL EUROPE.—THE SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN DIFFICULTY.—ITALY, AND ITALIAN UNITY.—THE EAST OF EUROPE.—SLAVS AND MAGYARS.—CONDITION OF POLAND.—PAUPERISM AND SOCIAL REFORM.—THEORISTS AND THEIR PLANS.—ST. SIMON.—BAZARD.—SOCIALISM AND FOURIER.—ROBERT OWEN, ETC.

THE EASTERN AND THE WESTERN SYSTEMS.



THE Revolution of July separated the European States into two groups—the constitutional Governments in the West, under the influence of France and England; and the absolute States in the East, where Austria, Russia, and Prussia dictated their own laws. Among the smaller States — Scandinavia, Germany, Italy—the majority in each nation were believers in constitutional progress, while the Governments and the aristocracy were in favour of personal or absolute monarchical rule, and depended on Austria and Russia.

Thus the three absolute Powers were interested in maintaining the principle of Divine right against that of the sovereignty of the people, in order to repress the revolutionary theory of popular government, and also to overpower

the conspiracies of the Poles. The good-natured, easy-tempered Austrian people, more bent on enjoyment than solicitous for liberty, bore with great equanimity and seeming indifference the patriarchal rule which Prince Metternich had established under a benevolent reigning house. Prussia appeared



MOSCOW, CHURCH OF ST. BASIL.

to forget that Frederick II. owed his success as much to the sympathy of the people as to the valour of his army. Possessing many prosperous industries, and a perfect military system, Prussia would have gained a commanding position among the European States, had she identified herself more closely

with the rest of Germany. Russia, the terror of democrats, was strong within through her autocratic sway, and powerful abroad through diplomatic strategy. The emperor Nicholas, inspired by the thought "of civilizing Russian na-



THE GRAND SQUARE, MEXICO.

tionality from within itself, and uniting in the same all the subject races, both in language and in faith," not unfrequently, in his efforts after uniformity, violated human rights, liberty, and nationality. Poland, recently dismem-

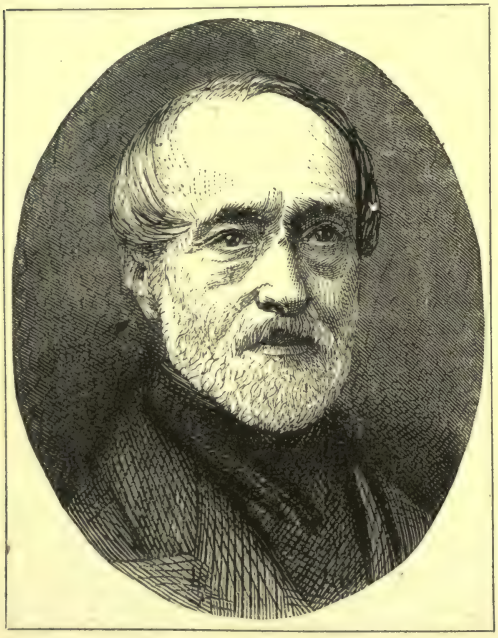
bered by an unjust act of the three absolute Powers, remained a thorn in the side of those whom her spoils had enriched.

The Minor States.—The second and third-rate States have exercised but little influence on the progress of European history. Germany, destitute of all united political life, had to confine her energy to the field of literature and Church matters, where there was no lack of strife. Spain and Portugal, torn by internal dissensions, remained under the influence of France and England, and also Belgium, flourishing under the rule of her alien constitutional monarch; while Holland, oppressed by financial distress, was compelled to behold her hereditary king, William I. of Orange, renounce the throne in favour of his son, and carry away with him into foreign lands his enormous fortune. The Scandinavian courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen likewise exercised but little influence in European politics. In Italy the patriotic hopes awakened by the July Revolution were soon destroyed. Insurrections in Bologna, Modena, and Parma were speedily suppressed; and the rulers, who had been expelled, were reinstated. The Government of Gregory XVI. failing to pacify the people by timely reforms, the nation again resorted to arms, and it was requisite to obtain assistance from Austrian troops before peace could be restored. This interference excited the jealousy of the French, who despatched an armed force, which, on the night of the 23rd of February, 1832, succeeded in capturing Ancona. The kingdom of Greece, the ill-starred creation of European diplomacy, was as yet unable to rise to the position she had assumed of a civilized State, and was still struggling with her former barbarism and brigandage, subject to the alternate influences of England, France, Russia, and the Porte. The Turkish Empire, fitfully upheld rather than strengthened by European influence, takes her certain path to destruction, from which till now only the jealousy of the Powers towards each other has hitherto preserved her.

The Republics.—The ancient federal republic of Switzerland underwent many internal convulsions after the July Revolution, as, in most of the cantons, aristocratic governments and constitutions were replaced by democratic forms. Free North America, the hope and refuge of persecuted liberals and democrats, the asylum of the down-trodden and oppressed, gained renewed prosperity from its political liberty. The government, vested in the hands of a president, elected every four years, and the legislative assembly of senators and representatives devoted their attention mainly to the development of commercial interests, the improvement of the army, etc., while perfect toleration was granted to all religious sects. One blot remained, however—the deep and dangerous taint of slavery. In maritime skill and commercial enterprise, America now endeavoured to vie with the mother-country; but the old jealousy of England was aroused, and broke out anew during the dispute about the Oregon territory in 1845. When the Congress concluded a treaty with Texas, which had obtained its liberty by a successful revolt against Mexico, and which then became incorporated with the United States, a sanguinary war resulted between the Northern States and Mexico, which, after the storming of the Mexican capital, ended with an important extension of the United States territory on the west.

The Struggle of Nationalities; the West.

WHILE politicians in former times, in making treaties or concluding a peace, paid more regard to geographical position and boundaries than to race or language, the demands of the people in later days have compelled more consideration to be given to national individuality, independence, self-government, and the preservation of origin and language. The system of uniformity adopted by Governments awoke both the sympathies and antipathies of the people, and laid the foundation for wars which have no parallel in bitterness save those waged in the name of religion. France alone was the exception; the Revolution had taught her the value of unity and centralization; while the German population of Lorraine and Alsace, with characteristic stolidity, offered no opposition to the government in Paris. In the British Islands, where different races are blended into one vast whole, Celtic Ireland alone rebels against "the Saxon"; while in Wales and the Scotch Highlands the original Gaelic language is only an object of scientific investigation, and remains as a distinct language in but a few remote valleys and districts.



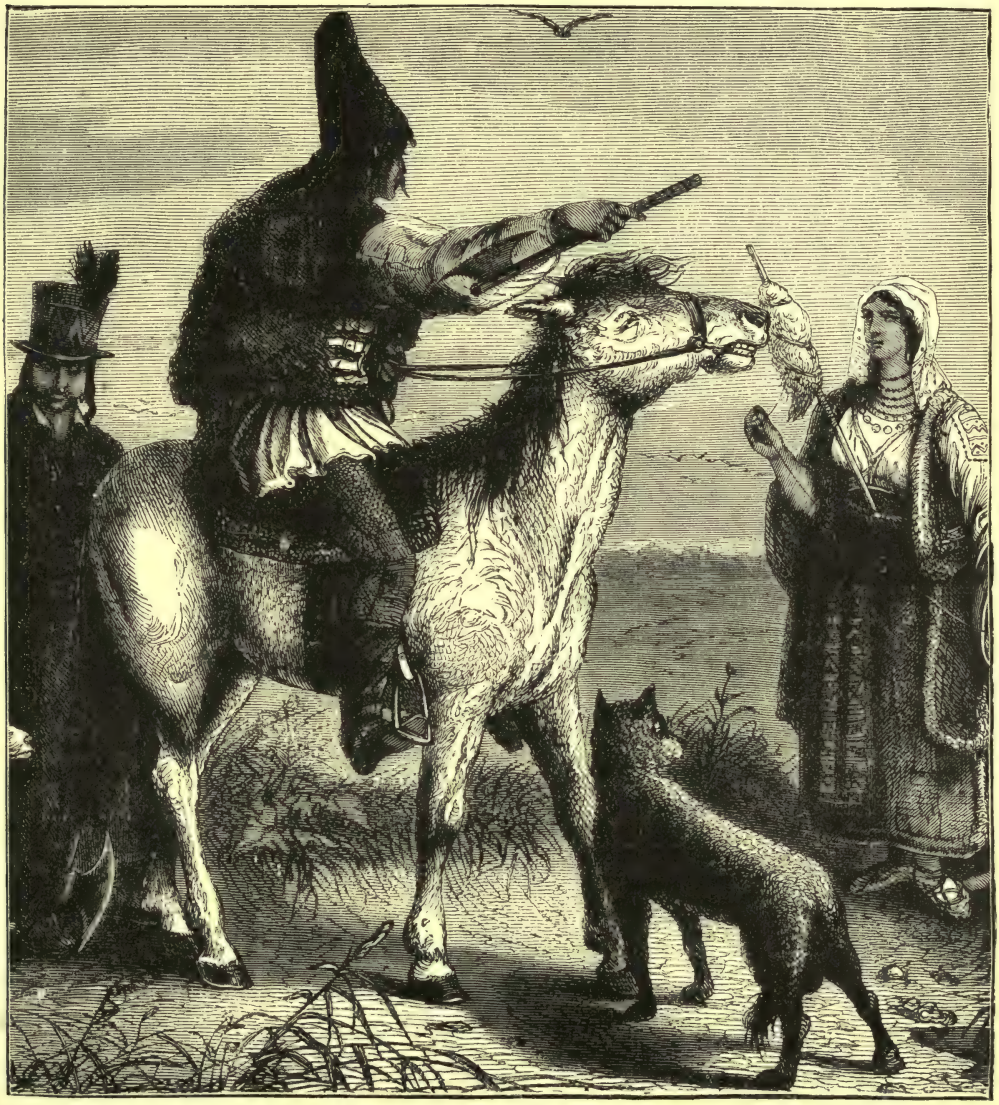
MAZZINI.

Central Europe.—The sentiment of nationalism ran higher in Central Europe, especially in Germany and Italy. Germany needed protection against the Netherlands in Limburg, against Russia in the Baltic provinces, and in Schleswig against the Danes. Schleswig had long been striving to defend her German nationality against Denmark; she had nourished the hope that on the extinction of the reigning house, which was imminent, she would, according to ancient privilege, be united to the German confederacy as Schleswig-Holstein, under one of her own princes (Augustenburg). These hopes were, however, shattered by the proclamation of King Christian VIII., which declared the continuance of the union with Denmark, in July, 1846.

In Italy the idea of Italian unity gained daily more adherents, under the influence of the bold and able Mazzini. In the Scandinavian kingdoms of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, there was no foreign element to combat, except the German Schleswigers, though a national party was formed which aimed at the consolidation of the kingdom into one State.

The East of Europe.—National strife was at its height in the East, where three races—the Germans, the Slavs, and the Magyars—were at war, partly from love of conquest, partly from the instinct of self-preservation. The former, who composed the ruling race in some of the countries of the hitherto

Polish kingdom, could with difficulty maintain their supremacy against the rebellious Poles, and were frequently obliged to assert their supremacy by the edge of the sword ; while in Hungary they were compelled to protect their German customs, institutions, and language against the hostile attacks of the



HUNGARIAN TYPES OF COSTUMES.

dominant Magyars. The race of Slavs extends its widest ramifications in the Eastern countries, but in Russia alone does it enjoy absolute supremacy. Ancient Poland is no more, having fallen a victim to internal lawlessness and outward violence, and all attempts of emigrant agitators to reanimate the dismembered body, by means of propaganda and conspiracies, have until now

been unavailing, and will continue so to be as long as the Polish nobility fail to learn a spirit of self-denial, and the Polish nation to acquire the rights and civilization of free citizens. So long as the Polish peasant, in spite of the elevated national sentiment and warm patriotism which animate all Poles, prefers to remain under Prussian rule than under the dominion of his native nobility, the restoration of Poland is impossible. The other Slavs live under different names, scattered throughout the Austrian empire, incapable of throwing off the yoke of the dominant races. The widely branching combination of the Panslavists seeks to keep alive among the various races of all countries the feeling of a common origin, and to inspire all with the great aim of national unity. In many countries Panslavism is used by Russian policy as the bearer and promoter of its interests; in others, it is the object of its fear, its distrust, and its persecution. Nevertheless, a common religion keeps awake Muscovite sympathy with the Slavs; the Greek Catholic Church is common to both races, while the Poles belong to the Roman Catholic Church, acknowledging the Pope as their visible head. The warlike Magyar prevails in Hungary, especially in the fruitful low countries east of the Theiss. As the conquerors of the fertile country of the ancient Pannonia, they claimed supremacy over the other populations of Slav or German origin, jealously guarded their own national institutions, developed industry, and showed themselves a strong and united people.

Pauperism and Social Reform.



THE great French Revolution had reduced to practice the theory of freedom and equality, and with one blow struck off the fetters that had hitherto excluded the lower class of artisans and labourers from enjoying equal privileges with the higher classes. The drudges of mankind, known under the earlier republics as slaves, and in the middle ages as serfs and bondsmen, destitute of any kind of property, destitute even of personal freedom, now began to assume their part in life as independent citizens, enforcing the claim to labour, marry, and found families. The consequence of this loosening of all the bonds of society soon became apparent. Subdivision of property and the equal right of inheritance of all children led, in time, to greater poverty and misery; with each generation property became more and more divided, and was eventually so much diminished, that but few families could exist on the produce they obtained. The free peasantry consequently degenerated into day labourers, and sank to a far worse position than they had occupied under the feudal system. Want drove them into debt, and many among them fell victims to Jews and usurers. The position in towns was even worse, where the abolition of guilds and corporations increased the number of artisans and labourers enormously, while manufactured materials became too cheap. The artisan became but little more than the slave of the manufacturer, of whom he was the political equal,

while capital obtained a supremacy and a despotic power such as had never been possessed by any privileged class.

The Indigent Classes.—The goal of liberty and equality, to attain which such rivers of blood had been shed, seemed farther off than ever. So long as the military exploits and the exciting historical events of the Revolutionary period and the supremacy of Napoleon enchained men's attention, and attracted their glances abroad, but small complaint was raised. The commu-



AT THE HOSPITAL DOOR.

nistic system of the republican enthusiast Babeuf was regarded as one of the many utopian theories to which the Revolution had given birth, nevertheless voices were gradually raised, representing a change in social conditions as just and necessary. France, which has brought to life the principle of liberty and equality, has also produced the systems of social reform. These systems were the socialistic, which, without violation of property, aimed at establishing such a degree of prosperity that all misery would banish from the world, and even the poorest would obtain a certain measure of happiness and enjoyment in

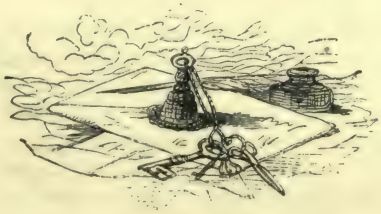
life,—and the communistic, which, by the abolition of all private property, by common government, and the division of all the necessaries of life, endeavoured to realize the principle of equality.

Saint-Simon.—The first social reforms were introduced by Count Saint-Simon (1760–1825), a peer of France, possessing great wealth, and high mental endowments. Beginning life under the fairest auspices, he subsequently lost all his fortune in the Revolution, and learned, by experience, familiarity with every phase of life and society. He committed suicide in 1825. He was the first to draw attention to the marked disparity between the position of the toiling classes and that of the comfortable bourgeoisie, and to endeavour to reconcile these opposing elements by the law of Christian love. Bazard (1791–1832), the head of the *Carbonari* in France, declaimed before sympathetic audiences on the new social-political doctrine, that the position of an individual in the State ought not to depend on the accident of his birth, but on the services he can render, and advocated a more equal distribution of property.

Socialism.—Fourier (1772–1835). The most complete and minute scheme for changing the entire existing social system originated with Carl Fourier, of Besançon, who combined a warm and sympathetic heart with a narrow and capricious intellect. He was educated as a merchant, but, having lost his fortune, endeavoured to support himself by book-keeping, and in his leisure hours devoted himself to framing his social system. In his view the welfare of the world depends on the union or association of energies and individuals in common aims, or social harmony, and that this social harmony can only be arrived at by a true knowledge of human motives and passions. In place of separate family households, and a disconnected social existence, he desired to found the united household of the phalanx in a large building, comprising 1200–1800 families, with a corresponding ownership of land of about a square mile, the expense to be covered by shares, which would secure a transferable possession in the land and property.

Owen.—Robert Owen, an English manufacturer (1772–1858), also endeavoured, like Fourier, to effect reforms in the social state, and to procure the working classes some share in the pleasures and advantages of the rich. When, however, he attacked religion, declared heaven a delusion, and marriage a farce, the sound common sense of the English people was roused against him.

Among other Communist theorists of the same period are Babeuf, Cabet (1788–1856), and the keen dialectician Proudhon (1809-1865), who regarded property as the spoils gained by the strong from the weak, but at the same time admitted that community of property was the despoilment of the strong by the weak, and demanded, with the abolition of inheritance, that of the individual possession of property.



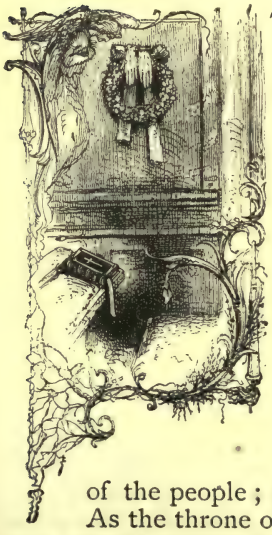


RELIGION AND THE CHURCHES.

POPULAR MOVEMENTS.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH; THE SOUTH.—ULTRAMONTANISM AND ITS INFLUENCES. — ESPARTERO.—THE WEST. — CATHOLICISM IN FRANCE.—CATHOLIC EMANCIPATION IN IRELAND, ETC.—PRUSSIA; THE DISPUTE REGARDING MIXED MARRIAGES.—THE PROTESTANT CHURCH RELIGIOUS MOVEMENTS.—FREDERICK WILLIAM THE FOURTH. —THE ANGLICAN CHURCH.—HIGH CHURCH AND LOW CHURCH.— DR. PUSEY.—RITUALISM.—MOVEMENT IN SCOTLAND.—LITERATURE AND CULTURE IN GERMANY.—DISTINGUISHED WRITERS.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH; THE SOUTH.



THE general suppression of political freedom turned the attention of restless spirits to the Church. Despite the assaults against her, the Catholic Church maintained her ancient authority, and continued to form a barrier against daring innovations; but her opposition to all reform, her devotion to mediæval superstitions, alienated from her the sympathies of the more enlightened people, and gained the cause of liberty a few adherents even amongst the priests. Ultramontanism proved itself least injurious in Italy, "where a sensuous form of religious worship is a necessity." Here the efforts of liberal patriots and of "young Italy" to rouse the people out of an enervating superstition and the bonds of priestcraft, and to inspire an enthusiasm for national independence and popular constitutions, proved of little avail. In Spain and Portugal also, Roman Catholicism was the religion of the people; but the Inquisition lent it a darker and intenser shade. As the throne of Ferdinand VII. in Spain, like Dom Miguel in Portugal, was upheld mainly by the influence of priests and Jesuits, the overthrow of the absolute power by the liberal Cortes Constitution had an injurious influ-

ence on the Church. When the weak and superstitious Don Carlos leagued with monks and priests to obtain the throne, while his opponent Christina and her daughter Isabella enlisted the sympathy of the people, and appealed to the Cortes for assistance, the mob, rebelling against their long spiritual bondage, sacked several convents and murdered the priests (1835–1837). Irritated by the opposition of the clergy to democratic reforms, the Cortes at last resorted to measures such as the Paris Assembly had once adopted. They closed all the convents, and sold the sacred vessels to stem the prevalent distress and defray the expenses of the war, at the same time declaring the Church property forfeited to the State. The Pope vainly protested that such acts were invalid. Espartero was declared regent, in recognition of his victory over Don Carlos (1840), and caused the papal nuncio to be conducted over the border. This severity against the Church led, however, to the regent's downfall. The youthful queen Isabella and her bigoted mother succeeded in effecting a reconciliation. The banished priests were recalled, and the remaining property of the Church was preserved.

The West.—After the July Revolution, which was aimed as much at the increasing power of the clergy as at the reactionary policy towards an absolute monarchy, a change took place in the religious as well as the political aspect of affairs. The citizen-king replaced the ruler by divine right; the Jesuits and Trappists had to fly, churches were ransacked, and Catholicism lost its privileged position as the religion of the State. Louis Philippe, however, endeavoured to reconcile the opposing elements; and soon the Jesuits, under assumed names, once more regained their footing in France, and opened their seminaries. Men like the historian Michelet and the poet-philosopher Quinet, supported by the liberal statesman Thiers, devoted their energies to opposing Jesuitical principles; while Republican literature adopted a lower standard, and, in place of the great moral union of Church and State, established artificial societies with worldly social aims, seeking to replace a religion of heaven by a doctrine of earthly felicity.

In Ireland, the people, reduced to despair by England's injustice and their own lack of industry and energy, were every winter threatened with starvation, and menacingly demanded relief from their misery by ecclesiastical and political reforms. The great agitator, O'Connell, supported by the whole body of Catholic Irishmen, kept the popular excitement alive, demanding the repeal of the Union; while the Dominican monk Mathew endeavoured by means of a Teetotalers' Union to promote temperance and a morality founded on self-respect. Sir Robert Peel's administration brought in a Bill removing the disabilities of the Roman Catholic Church, and endowed Maynooth, the seminary of the Catholic priesthood. In addition to this, national schools had also been established, which endeavoured to harmonize the difference of creed.

Germany.—The bitterest religious conflicts took place in Germany, partly through the people's natural taste for philosophic and profound thought, partly from the absence of a free political life. The leader and champion of the strictly orthodox or ultramontane party, which has its headquarters in Bavaria, was the clever and imaginative Görres (1776–1848), professor at Munich, a man who had quitted the ranks of the freethinkers for papal absolutism. This school opposed every reform and every innovation. On the other hand, a large number of the Catholic clergy who had, either by education or intercourse with Protestants, imbibed more tolerant principles, demanded national synods, and aimed at suitable reforms, and attacked the unnatural command of celibacy.

The Dispute with regard to Mixed Marriages.—Since the Peace of Friesland, the ban against mixed marriages had been repealed; and, in the year 1825, the Prussian law, according to which all children were to be brought up in their father's faith, unless the mutual consent of both parents decreed it otherwise, was extended to Westphalia and the Rhine provinces. The Pope, however, issued a circular (March, 1830) forbidding mixed marriages unless the parents previously swore to let their children be educated in the Roman Catholic faith. While these dissensions were at their height, Frederick William IV. ascended the throne of Prussia (June, 1840), and directed his whole energies to the pacification of the Church. He set the Archbishop Dunin at liberty, and permitted direct intercourse of the bishops with Rome. This victorious



BERLIN IN THE LAST CENTURY.

issue, and the evident compliance evinced by the Protestant Governments towards the demands and menaces of the clergy, filled the Catholic Church with great consciousness of power, and exposed still further the weakness of distracted Protestantism.

The Protestant Church; Religious Movements.

THE Protestant Church, which has its root and foundation in individual liberty, offers a still greater variety of shades and diversities. Germany, the birthplace of Protestantism, the headquarters of Protestant theology and philosophy, remains even in the most recent times the creative source of religious systems and ecclesiastical organization. Among the leading theo-

logical writers of the early part of the present century are Paulus (1761–1851) and Schleiermacher (1768–1834), a theologian, who was also distinguished as a chancellor, a thinker, and academical professor, who endeavoured to bring Christian faith into agreement with the requirements of pure reason, and represented a life without Christian communion, without faith and religion, as vain and meaningless. Similar writers were Daub and Marheinecke, who both adapted the results of the philosophical thought of their time, especially the systems of Schelling and Hegel, to theology, in an independent and spirited manner.

Hegel (1770–1834), who ultimately became professor at Berlin, was the founder of an important system of State philosophy, which was for a long time encouraged, because its tenets were favourable to the cause of absolute government. His philosophy, though admitting that Christianity is the most perfect form of Divine self-consciousness, bore within itself the germs of Pantheism. David Fr. Strauss (1808–1874) has, in his "Leben Jesu," attacked with historical keenness and sceptical criticism the truth of the evangelical narratives of Jesus Christ. Though dissenting from the popular Christian belief, he was appointed by the liberal government of Zurich to the theological chair of their university (1839), but the overthrow of the government of the canton by the people, who had risen in support of their faith, prevented his filling the office. Among other writers on theology and the gospels were Bruno Bauer (1809), and Ludwig Feuerbach (1804–1872), who declared Christianity to be a fixed idea, all religion the self-deception of mankind, a delusion of the mind.

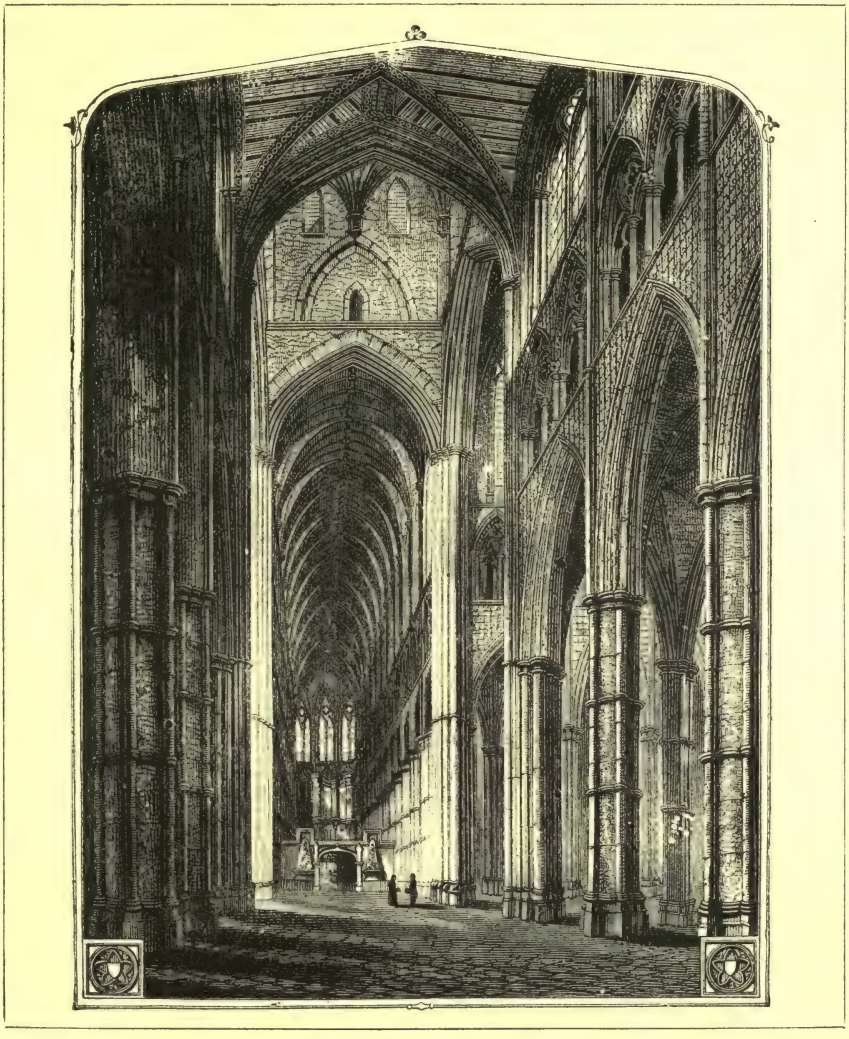
Frederick William IV.



WHEN Frederick William IV. ascended the throne of Prussia, the orthodox party anticipated a new golden age. But however much the new sovereign sympathised with the orthodox Church tendency, yet he possessed too much judgment to devote himself exclusively to one small party. He nevertheless took up the position of champion of religious faith, and, in conjunction with the Queen of England, organized the bishopric of Jerusalem according to the Anglican Church doctrine. He personally presided at the celebration of the building of the cathedral of Cologne, established a new High Church faction, and encouraged every religious movement which was originated by the Church or the orthodox party. The king was imbued with the idea of conferring on the Protestant Church such unity and stability as would give it a dignified position between the strictly organized Catholicism of France and the Greek Church of Russia. In opposition to this so-called court or orthodox party, there sprang up a society of Protestant *Lichtfreunde* for promoting a rational, practical Christianity in accordance with the requirements of the times. The soul of this society was the Saxon preacher Uhlich, who was ultimately suspended from his post for resistance to ecclesiastical authority.

The Anglican Church, Calvinism in Scotland, etc.—In other Protestant countries also Church movements arose, though they did not assume such importance, because a free political life afforded turbulent spirits another

scene of conflict. There soon arose in the English State Church a schism between the High Church and the Evangelical party: the former, laying more stress on the Catholic element of the Episcopal Church, sees its salvation only in the uninterrupted continuity of the Anglo-Catholic Church with the Apostolic Church, and regards the Reformation as only an act of self-purification; the latter, representing, on the other hand, the Protestant element,



INTERIOR OF WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

lays greater weight on the agreement of Church faith with Holy Scripture than with the doctrines of the Church, and considers the development of doctrine by means of suitable reform as an essential necessity. The Catholic movement, under the Oxford scholars Newman and Pusey, soon reached such a point that its supporters could only bring their religious views, which were modelled on the doctrines of the Catholic Church, into agreement with the Thirty-nine Articles by forced sophistical meanings, which induced the

leading members among the Puseyite party to go over to the Catholic Church, rather than continue in an equivocal position. Similar aims were pursued by the Ritualists, who sought to bring the High Church services into closer conformity with the Romish Church. These movements tended to rouse Protestant sentiment in England; and when the Roman Curie, overestimating the Catholic sympathies of England, appointed the Irish prelate Wiseman cardinal and bishop of Westminster (1850), the "No Popery" cry was again raised with such violence that the Government and Parliament, in spite of the opposition of the Catholics, felt themselves compelled to meet this and similar encroachments of the head of the Church by the passing of the Ecclesiastical Titles Act. In Scotland, the Puritan zeal produced a violent conflict with regard to the right of Patronage (1834), by means of which it was in the power of patrons to force unpopular ministers on congregations; and when Parliament granted no redress, the upholders of Church liberty (Non-intrusionists) seceded from the State Church, and established the Presbyterian Free Church. The defiant temper of the democratic Knox still survived in his Church. The steadfast clergy, with the eloquent Chalmers at their head, resigned their revenues and parsonages, and solemnly protested against the "disgrace which was inflicted on the crown of Christ by the temporal power."

In Waadtland and other cantons of French Switzerland, the religious lukewarmness of the National Church had afforded an opening for a strict Methodism to gain ground among both higher and lower classes; but its teachers and ministers were subjected to considerable persecution from the Government.

The greatest diversity of Churches and sects is to be found in the United States of North America, where the most unlimited religious liberty prevails. The State does not concern itself with the constitution of any Church, demonstrates its Christian character only by a Sabbath law, and grants to every one who believes in one God, perfect right of citizenship.

German Literature and Culture.



LITERATURE, and especially the poetic art, cannot withdraw itself from the influence of the ideas which affect and govern the period, and it operates all the more powerfully on its contemporaries, the more clearly and decisively it reflects prevailing opinions. Thus mediæval poetry revolved round chivalry and the worship of love; in the century of the Reformation and the immediately succeeding period, literature and poetry remained under the influence of religion and the Church; and that the classical period of German literature has not produced a like central point is principally accounted for by the want of powerful, dominant ideas and events—a want which the intellect of Germany has endeavoured to replace by vigorous and diverse creations in the region of imagination, philosophy, and science. Times were changed when the French Revolution and the Napoleonic despotism advanced along violent and bloody tracks, and crushed down the former period of gentle tranquillity and superannuated forms. The people of Europe, and above all the German nation, were startled out of their accustomed quietude, and compelled to take their part in great historical events. The

period of the Holy Alliance, which was to give back peace to Europe and the old conditions in Church and State, brought no content and spirit of reconciliation into German literature. Here, also, there prevailed an aristocratic, or conservative, and a liberal, or reforming, tendency. Among writers of the latter school were Ludwig Uhland and Moritz Arndt, and Platen-Hallermünde (1796–1825), distinguished as a lyric, satirical, and epic writer, who did homage to political liberalism. They form, with Schiller and Körner, the favourite authors of the German people; and all the efforts of the romantic school and their followers, among whom were King Louis of Bavaria and Prince John of Saxony, to oust from their position these true poets of liberty, by poetical works of loyal colouring and aristocratic tendency, remained without result.

Börne and Heine.—By means of the July Revolution, the principle of aristocracy, both in the State and literature, had been roused and terrified from its secure tranquillity; the literature of the political opposition and of democracy now asserted itself, under the guidance of a number of talented men of *Jewish* descent, who sought to revenge the persecutions and grievances to which the Israelites in Germany had so long been exposed. Ludwig Börne (1784–1837), in his "Writings for the Times," and "Letters from Paris," shows himself a champion of liberalism and democratic principles, "the incarnation of social progress," to whom political conviction was a religion. Heinrich Heine (1799–1856), a highly gifted poet, author of "Reisebilder," "Book of Songs," and other pleasing poetical works, devoted himself, after the French Revolution, to relentless satire, derided all religion, esteemed neither friendship nor fidelity, and exercised his wit as much on what was noble and sacred as on the common and profane. Bowed down by bodily suffering, Heine at last turned once more to religion, and describes in an introduction to his latest work, "Romanzero," the return of the "lost son who tended the swine of the Hegelians," and his conversion to faith in a personal God. Among other writers who formed the school called "Young Germany," and gathered round Heine, were Gutzkow (born 1811), Mundt (1807–1861), famous for his critics and sketches, Ludolf Wienberg, etc.; while the poets of the period included Berthold Auerbach (born 1812), Hebbel (1813–1863), Geibel, Heyse, etc.



The Poets of Austria.

In cheerful Austria also, where enjoyment in life and lively art had so long been more highly regarded than liberty and patriotism, and where the political writings of the champions of ultramontanism and of absolute principles had been so long looked upon as the expression of national sentiment, free political thought could not be repressed. Under the police dominion and moral despotism of Metternich, several complaining voices were raised aloud, who sighed after deliverance from the iron yoke. These voices were all the more impressive, as they opposed with calmness and dignity the despotic system of government, and endeavoured to instil into the susceptible people self-respect and a sense of human dignity. Among such writers were Zedlitz (1790–1862), the poet of the

"Todtenkränze," Anastasius Grün (born 1806), and Lenau (1802–1850), whose imaginative mind at last became obscured by the cloud of insanity; and in epic and dramatic poetry, Hilscher (died 1837), Pyrker (1772–1847), Ebert, the writer of the national epic "Wlasta," Castelli, etc.

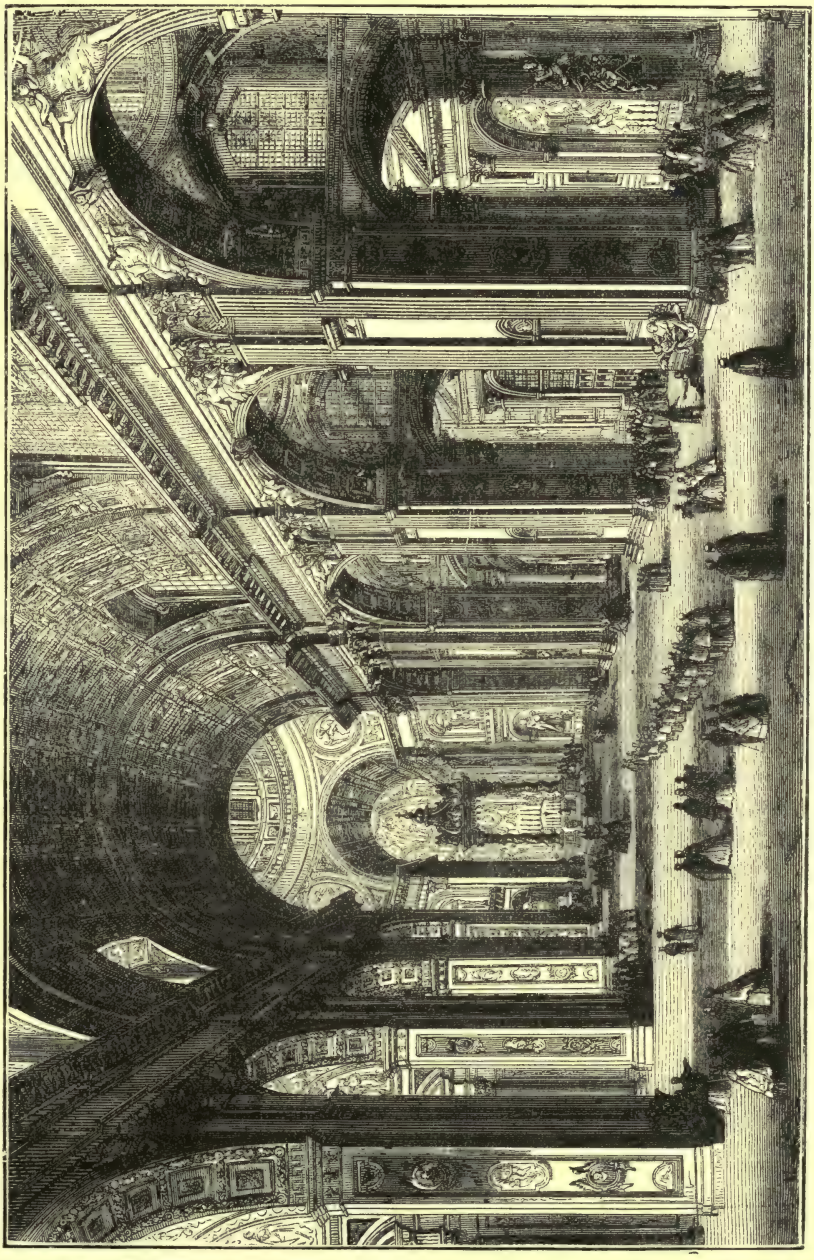
Literary Women.—The elevated and wide-spread civilization of this period, and the importance attaching to literary works caused by the want of great activities and occurrences, led many who, in other countries or in other more natural conditions, would have devoted themselves to the practical affairs of life, into the sphere of science, literature, and art. In this movement women were not behind. In letters, poems, and romances, many made their mark at this period, among the most prominent being Rahel (1771–1833), a Jewess by birth, but who subsequently became converted to Christianity, who excited great attention by her "Letters," which her husband published as a legacy; Elizabeth von Arnim (1785–1859), called Bettina, the lively and eccentric sister of the novelist and poet Brentano, and the wife of the romancist Achim von Arnim, passed from an admiration of Goethe bordering on worship, which she has portrayed in her "Briefwechsel eines Kindes," to the most extreme form of democracy, a tendency which was absolutely opposed to Goethe's opinions and theories; Ida von Hahn-Hahn (born 1805), the authoress of several romances and books of travel; Fanny Lewald (born 1812); Sophie Stieglitz, the highly gifted wife of the poet Henry Stieglitz (1803–1851); Johanna Schopenhauer, Fredrika Bremer, and others.



HEYNE.

Among writers of philology and the science of language, of which Gottlob Heyne (1729–1812) may be regarded as the true founder, are Wolf (1759–1824), who raised philology to an independent science, and established its limits and aims; Gottfried Hermann (1772–1848), Buttmann, Jacobs, etc.: while in the department of comparative philology, are Adelung (1732–1806), author of the work entitled "Mithridates, or a general knowledge of languages," Fr. Schlegel (1772–1829), Weber of Berlin, and, in the first rank, Max Müller of Oxford, also Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767–1835), one of the greatest minds of Germany, who by his work "On the difference of structure of human language and its influence on the intellectual development of the human race," became the real founder of modern philology. A friend and associate of Schiller, Goethe, and Wolf, and, as a statesman and diplomatist, conversant with the higher circles of every country, and assisted by the experiments of his brother Alexander von Humboldt, who had subjected to his investigations the whole realm of natural science, Wilhelm von Humboldt reigned like a

sovereign in the domain of intellect. To whatever he applied himself, he gave evidence of noble gifts, but the crowning point of his many-sided activity is in his labours in the sphere of philology.



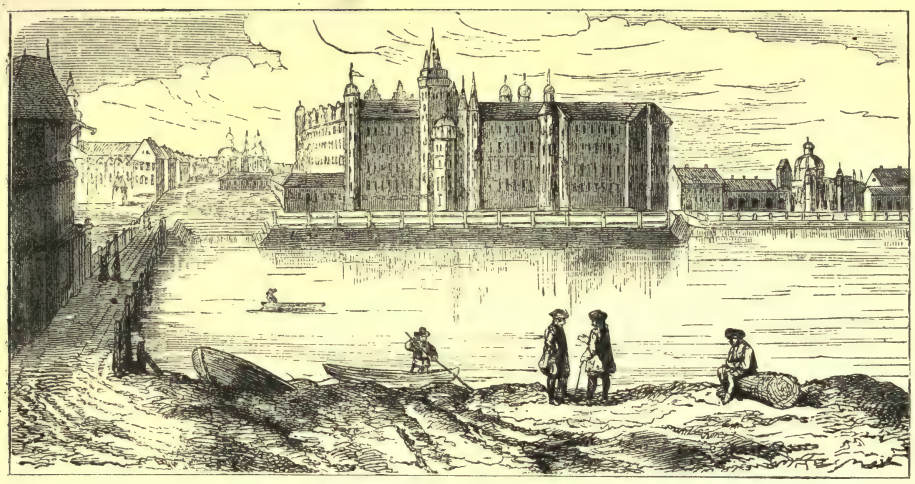
INTERIOR OF ST. PETER'S, ROME.

In the department of history are also many important names in German literature. Barthold; Georg Niebuhr (1776–1831), a man of influence in the

service of the Prussian State, treated in a serious spirit the wars of liberty, and with the light of historical criticism investigated the "History of Rome." Schlosser (1776–1861), author of a "History of the World," and "History of the 18th and 19th Century"; Heinrich Leo, of Halle (born 1799), a fertile Protestant historian, author of a universal history; Dahlman (1785–1860); Varnhagen von Ense; Luden; Gervinus (1805–1871), author of a "History of German Poetry," and of an excellent work on Shakespeare.

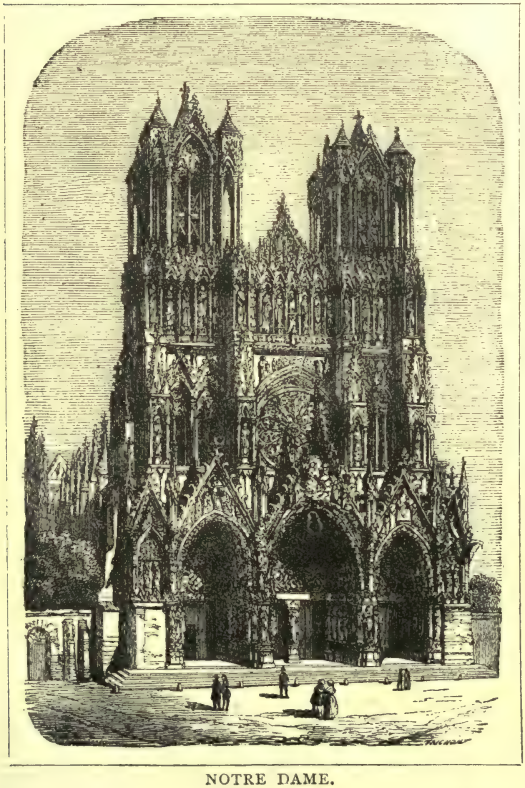


ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT.



THE GOVERNMENTS AND THEIR SYSTEMS.

POSITION OF THE CONSTITUTIONAL STATES.—FRANCE UNDER LOUIS PHILIPPE.—REACTION, AND ABANDONING OF POPULAR PRINCIPLES.—RESTRICTION OF ELECTIONS.—ENEMIES OF THE GOVERNMENT.—THE LEGITIMISTS AND "HENRI V."—THE REPUBLICANS.—NAPOLEON'S FUNERAL.—FRANCE'S POSITION ABROAD.—ALGERIA.—THE EAST.—MEHEMET ALI AND THE SULTAN OF TURKEY.—THE PYRENEAN PENINSULA.—CARLISTS AND CHRISTINOS.—FRENCH INFLUENCE.—PORTUGAL.—DON MIGUEL AND DONNA MARIA DA GLORIA.—TRIUMPH OF THE QUEEN.—HER DEATH.



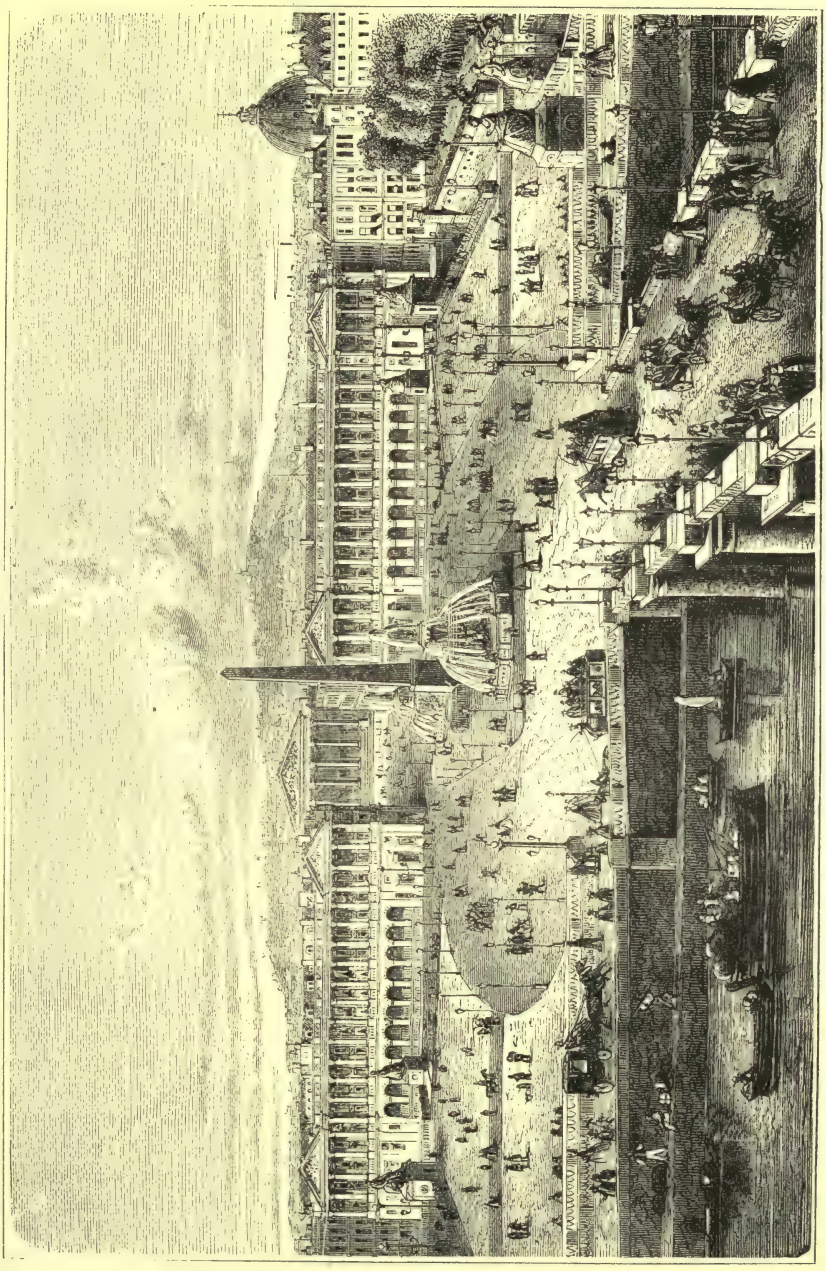
NOTRE DAME.

CONSTITUTIONAL STATES.—FRANCE.

THE French Revolution had completely destroyed the severance of classes, had deprived the nobility and clergy of their privileges, and had given power to the middle classes. The Bourbons beheld this result only with repugnance, and sought to bring back again the conditions which had existed previous to the Revolution. The throne and altar concluded an

eternal alliance, the nobility plumed themselves on the vain renown of their ancestors, and the middle class was once more compelled to return to their former servitude. Then followed the July Revolution, and Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, obtained the throne as "King of the French." Disconcerted at this turn of events, the adherents of the Bourbons (Legitimists, Carlists), as well as the zealous Republicans, offered every opposition to the new Government,—the former by keeping aloof from the court and blaming in their Legitimist journals all the plans and reforms of the Government, the latter by attempting, either by secret conspiracies or repeated risings, to overthrow the "bourgeois monarchy." So long as the king remained faithful to the principles of the July Revolution, and relied on the middle class, his government was secure and safe; but only too soon did Louis Philippe estrange from himself the hearts of the people, by allying his policy more closely with the principles of the Bourbons, and showing that he possessed qualities which could not but deprive him of the affection and esteem of the nation. Instead of winning the popular favour to the new Government by free institutions, and, by an extension of the suffrage, permitting the middle and lower class a share in the government, the king made a new law of election, by which the number of eligible voters was limited to less than half a million. By this restriction the door was opened for every form of intimidation and corruption. The Upper Chamber, appointed by the king, was a pliable instrument, and served the Government as little more than an extraordinary court of justice for State offences. Confiding in the docility of the people's representatives, Louis Philippe now established that system of self-seeking and venality which has been so frequently lauded and extolled as astute State wisdom. He estranged himself more and more from the authors of the July Revolution, Lafitte and Lafayette, and gathered round him people who obeyed all his commands, and served his dynastic interests. In possession of an immense property, he availed himself of his elevated position to still further increase it by every means in his power. He also entered into profitable speculations, both at home and abroad; and where his treasures were at stake, he did not shrink from slander and deception. When the Duke of Condé died in a mysterious manner, either by suicide or assassination, the king claimed the rich inheritance for one of his sons; and when the finance minister, Humann, wished to effect a beneficial reduction in the State revenues, the king by means of the Peers Chamber frustrated the project, which had already received the assent of the deputies. This spirit of self-seeking soon became apparent in most of the members of the Government, and the king was careful that no independent, honourable men should stand in the way of his schemes. The old theory of an English statesman, that every man has his price, obtained now in France a sorrowful confirmation. The sale of public offices, bribery, and purchased concessions were daily occurrences, and gradually lost all taint of ignominy; while the disgrace of falsifying the coinage, and cheating, dishonoured some of the first families in France. Material advantages took the place of honour and a spotless name. Even the first ministers, Soult, Bugeaud, and Thiers, were suspected of self-seeking; the general, and former war minister, Cubières, was tried for corruption, and Teste paid the penalty for his clearly proved guilt in prison. No wonder that the people regarded all who took part in the government, who replenished themselves from the golden stream filled by the people's labour and the sweat of their brows, with suspicion. Louis Philippe, superior to all in intelligence and knowledge of mankind, surrounded himself with a number of statesmen who obeyed him

unreservedly, and from among whom he alternately formed his ministry. Thiers, the author of the "History of the Revolution and of the Reign of



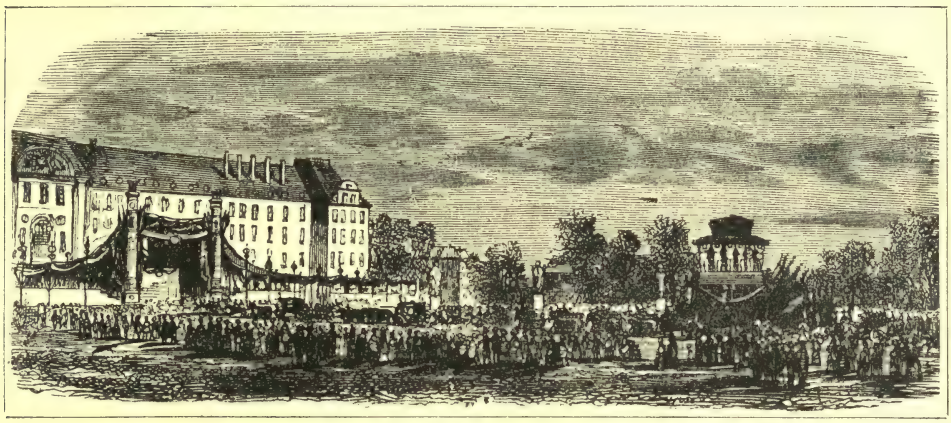
PLACE DE LA CONCORDE.

Napoleon," a clever and eloquent man, would not submit unconditionally to the pleasure of his sovereign, and asserted the principle that the king can

only reign, not govern; but he was as little able as the others to effect a transformation in the policy and method of government. More tractable than Thiers was Guizot the historian, who proved himself a willing servant of his ruler, and was false to the principles of Liberalism which had brought him to power.

The July Government, with the minister Casimir Périer at its head, soon met with opposition from enterprising opponents. The Legitimists, under the leadership of the aged poet Chateaubriand, after a vain attempt to assert the claims of the Duke of Bordeaux, whom they ostentatiously termed Henry the Fifth, retired discomfited from the conflict. More dangerous to the throne, however, were the bold enterprises of the Republicans. Exasperated at the measures of a Government which had surrendered Poland, which entered into diplomatic intrigues with the old cabinets, and which repressed Republican journals, and forbade unions and associations, the Republicans in Lyons took up arms in November, 1831, and for a whole week kept the town in their power, until Marshal Soult with a large army compelled it to submission. Their overthrow did not deter their fellow-sympathisers in Paris from making a similar attempt. The funeral, in June, 1832, of the Liberal general Lamarque, who, with Lafayette, Lafitte, etc., formed the centre of the opposition, was made the occasion of an insurrectionary movement, which, however, had no result, and which brought severe punishment upon the participators. The *National*, under the editorship of the brave Armand Carrel, was the much-persecuted organ of this party. But before long the Republicans divided into different factions, representing very diverse tendencies and aims; viz. strict Republicans, Communists, and Socialists. The increased wealth and luxury of the upper classes afforded a pretext for ensnaring the minds of the common people with sophistical theories of equality and brotherly love. The overthrow of the existing Government, the abolition of property, and an equal division of the necessaries of life, and a struggle with the upper classes of society, was the aim of the secret associations; their public watchword was, the reform of elections and a change in the constitution. Government and authority were represented as conditions that had been established by force, towards which no obedience was obligatory, and which could only exist so long as "the people" were unconscious of their strength, or did not make use of their power. By such doctrines as these, originating in France and thence transplanted to other countries, the foundations of the State were gradually undermined. Eight attempts were made on the life of Louis Philippe, the most terrible being that which occurred on the celebration of the July days, 1835, by the miscreant Fieschi, by means of a so-called infernal machine on the Boulevards, when twenty-one persons standing near the king, among them the old marshal Mortier, Duke of Treviso, were killed. Fieschi and his two accomplices died on the guillotine; yet their execution did not deter others from similar attempts. In consequence of these outbreaks, the September laws were promulgated (1835), which imposed considerable restrictions on the liberty of the press, and rendered judicial sentences more rigorous, and which were vehemently but fruitlessly opposed by the party of the Left led by Odillon Barrot and others. About this time, two separate attempts were made by Prince Louis Napoleon Bonaparte—one at Strasburg, the other at Boulogne—to overthrow the Government. For the second of these treasonable endeavours he paid the penalty of a long imprisonment in the fortress of Ham, subsequently making his escape in the disguise of a workman. So secure, however, did the Government feel against the conspiracies of the Bonapartists,

that they even allowed the remains of Napoleon to be brought from St. Helena and interred in the church of the Invalides. Greater anxiety was felt by King Louis Philippe with regard to the increasing opposition of the Republicans, and of the Communist and Socialist clubs, especially when a great calamity befell him in the death of his eldest son, the popular Duke of Orleans, who was fatally injured in a carriage accident in July, 1842, when the king's youthful grandson became heir to the throne, and the unpopular Duc de Nemours was appointed regent in case of the king's death during the young prince's minority. And in order to guard himself and his dynasty from any unexpected accident, the king, with the assistance of Thiers, at last succeeded in effecting his favourite project of surrounding the whole of Paris with fortifications, ostensibly for protection against outward enemies, but in reality for the repression of Republican agitations. For by means of the strict centralization, by which all political activity has its source and mainspring in Paris, the ruler of the capital is the undisputed master of the whole country.



NAPOLEON'S FUNERAL.

France's Position Abroad.

THE July Revolution had been for most of the States of Europe an electric shock, which, in conjunction with the cholera which was then spreading abroad its devastations, brought terror and dismay to the rulers of States, and startled the higher classes from their easy enjoyment of life. In spite, however, of the agitations of the Liberals in different countries, the number of concessions gained was but few. The independence of the kingdom of Belgium was the only accomplished fact which resulted from the July Revolution after lengthy negotiations of the ministers' conference in London. Poland was sacrificed, and all attempts made by emigrants in different countries to reanimate the sentiment of nationality by means of secret propaganda, ended in their destruction, and filled the prisons with new "martyrs." The German princes, distrusting the covetous intentions of the French with regard to the Rhine frontier, assiduously courted the favour of Russia; while in Italy the July Government was at least so far in accordance with the aspirations of the Liberal party, that it endeavoured to secure the

Peninsula from an Austrian protectorate, and to rescue the reforming party from entire defeat. While, however, through the pacificatory influence of the French king, the July Revolution was not fraught with such disastrous consequences for European States as had been anticipated, Louis Philippe was compelled, on the other hand, to find at a distance a field for the exercise of the warlike temper of the nation. For this end the newly conquered territory of Algiers, in North Africa, for the further extension and colonization of which arrangements were immediately projected, was admirably adapted.

Algiers.—However dearly bought for the French nation was the possession of Algiers, and however terrible the violence and bloody conflicts with which the unfortunate country was visited, for France and for Louis Philippe the war brought unlimited benefits, by affording a suitable scene of action to

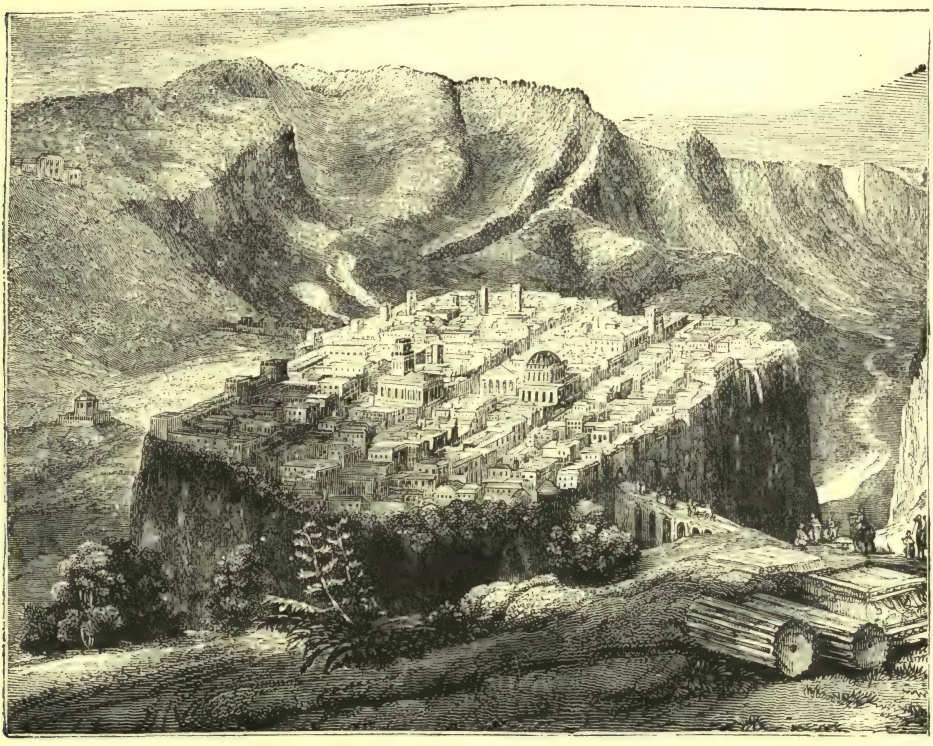


BEDOUIN ARABS.

which a large number of the discontented and rebellious could be drafted off, often for their own profit and moral and material benefit, and always to the advantage of their country. Certainly the new conquerors were unable even for a moment to sheathe their swords; for they found in the Emir, Abd-el-Kader, an opponent such as the Romans had once been called upon to oppose in Jugurtha. Crafty and enterprising, abounding in schemes and resources, and powerful in his boundless authority over the natives, Abd-el-Kader for many years successfully resisted the French army, until General Bugeaud at last succeeded in establishing the recognition of France's supremacy over Algeria in the Peace of Tafua, in May, 1837. A subsequent outbreak on the part of the Emir, in revenge for a violation of his territory, was vigorously and triumphantly repressed. Many tribes revolted from his sway, and he himself was compelled to seek refuge in flight. He was

ultimately, after another attempted rising, taken prisoner, and brought to France, in 1847, where he remained in strict confinement, until Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, during an ostentatious journey to Bursa, in Asia Minor, released him and conferred on him an annuity.

The East.—The fact which renders the possession of Algiers exceedingly important to the French is the participation that colony has procured for them in the supremacy over the Mediterranean, and a material influence in Eastern affairs. Partly, probably, from a desire of maintaining a good understanding with the Mohammedan States of the East, and also to keep in view the kingdom of Egypt, Louis Philippe and his ministers entered into a friendly alliance with the cruel and tyrannical Pasha Mehemet Ali and his



CONSTANTINE.

warlike son Ibrahim, who, after destroying the power of the Mamelukes, established, with European aid, and especially French counsellors, a system of government which combined Western civilization with Eastern despotism. European industry was introduced into the country, which added to the wealth of the sovereign, but left the people poorer than before; and such European institutions as a system of police and conscription were established, with the result of imposing still heavier fetters on the enslaved nation. Relying on his important naval and military forces, Mehemet then refused to pay tribute to the Sultan of Turkey, subjugated Nubia and Kordofan, where he vigorously organized the traffic in negroes, and supported his son Ibrahim in the conquest of Syria and Palestine. War now broke out with Turkey, between 1839 and 1841, and after several successes, Mehemet was on the

point of making the boldest demands of the Porte, when the Quadruple Alliance, composed of the four great Powers, without the co-operation of France, came to the assistance of the oppressed Sultan, and finally Mehemet Ali was compelled to agree to the conditions of peace laid down by the



STREET SCENE IN CAIRO.

Powers, by which the possession of Egypt and Nubia as a hereditary stadtholdership was secured to himself and his successors, on the payment of a tribute to the Porte, while on the other hand he was compelled to yield Syria and Crete, and to surrender his fleet.

The Pyrenean Peninsula.—Conflicts in Spain.

SPAIN and Portugal, even after the July Revolution, remained the centre of violent party conflicts ; and although the people had but small conception of civil institutions and municipal government, and were more easily inspired by a bold military leader than roused to ardour for constitutional systems or political transactions, yet every form of modern state-life, from a democratic republic to apostolic absolutism under the banner of the Holy Virgin, had its champions and adherents in the Pyrenean peninsula. The lower classes, and especially the country people and mountaineers, who were under the influence of the priests and monks, upheld the ancient hierarchical and monarchical institutions ; while the enlightened and more cultured classes in the towns espoused the French theories of a Liberal government. Nevertheless, every effort of the Liberals to maintain their moderate views, and even with the aid of England to enforce them by a resort to arms, proved unavailing ; and not till the hypocritical king, Ferdinand VII., sank into the grave, did better times begin for the Constitutional party.

Some months before the July Revolution, Ferdinand had allowed himself to be induced by his fourth wife, Maria Christina of Naples, to set aside, by means of the promulgated "pragmatic sanction," the Salic law, which excludes a female line of succession to the throne, and by this means to secure to his infant daughter Isabella the future possession of the crown (March, 1830). This change displeased the Apostolic party and the upholders of absolutism, who, on the death of the king shortly afterwards, raised the standard of rebellion, and proclaimed Don Carlos king of Spain as Charles V. (Sept. 29th, 1833). The queen, Maria Christina, now summoned the Liberals and Constitutional party to her assistance, and endeavoured to win their confidence by granting favours and an amnesty to political exiles. In this way the dispute for the throne developed into a civil war—the Carlists fighting for the old Spanish Constitutions, for the despotism of throne and altar, and the Christinos for constitutional government, civil liberty, equality before the law, and the annihilation of the priestly power. For seven years there raged a civil war, with all the terrible accompaniments of rapine, murder, and violence, until at last the Christinos, under their brave leader Espartero, consented to the treaty of Bergara on 31st of August, 1839, and the insurgents laid down their arms. The authority of Don Carlos was now gone for ever. He ultimately resigned his claims in favour of his eldest son, repaired to Italy, where he spent the remainder of his days, and died on the 10th March, 1855. In Catalonia the Carlists continued the struggle yet a year longer, until they also were overpowered by Espartero, and compelled to seek safety in French territory.



VIEW OF GRANADA.

Party Conflicts and Court Intrigues.

SOON afterwards, Espartero, who had been appointed Duke of Vittoria, became the defender of the Spanish popular rights against court intrigues and the diplomatic arts of the party of reaction, of which Christina soon showed herself the patron. Two parties were now formed, of Progressists and Moderates, and after repeated struggles the regent at last found herself compelled to summon Espartero, the leader of the Progressists, and entrust him with the formation of a cabinet. On the 16th September, 1840, the Duke of Vittoria made his ceremonious entry into the capital, and immediately demanded of the queen the abrogation of obnoxious laws, the removal of the Camarilla, and the dissolution of the Cortes. Wounded in her sovereign pride, and yet unable to resist the demand, the queen-regent abdicated, and retired to France, whereupon Espartero was appointed regent by the newly chosen assembly (October, 1840). The government of the duke-regent was of short duration. Supported by French money and influence, Christina was enabled to despatch General Narvaez to Valencia; Espartero marched with his troops to Sierra Morena, and then, when the news reached him of the surrender of Madrid, he repaired to Cadiz, whence he took ship for England, in July, 1843. General Narvaez was made president of the ministry, and Christina was recalled to Spain. French policy at Madrid attained its climax in the "Spanish marriages" of Isabella and her younger sister; the latter married the youngest son of Louis Philippe.

Portugal.

IN Portugal, since Don Miguel had quitted the country, and Maria da Gloria had ruled as a constitutional queen, affairs had taken a turn similar to Spain, only that here, not French, but English influence prevailed. The Portuguese people were also divided into several parties holding the most diverse opinions, though even the Constitutionals did homage more or less to Liberal views; and when great financial distress began to prevail, and the queen, like Christina, showed a reluctance to yield to a demand for popular representation and civil rights, an insurrection took place, on the 9th of September, 1836, when Maria da Gloria found herself compelled to yield to the storm, and appoint a new ministry. When she subsequently retracted her promises, however, the storm broke out anew; a summons of the Cortes was insisted on, and this assembly proceeded to declare the constitution of 1820 to be the fundamental law of the State. In vain did the court and the aristocracy, with English aid, endeavour to overthrow the new constitutional law (1837); counter agitations were repressed, and the constitution was at last accepted and sworn. But still the nation attained no lasting peace. The Moderates and Progressists continued their struggles; and in August, 1846, the despotic ministry, headed by the Duke of Terceira, produced an agitation throughout the country; and Donna Maria at last decided to place the conduct of the government in the hands of the popular Duke de Palmella, who, however, was speedily overthrown. In 1853 Maria died, and was succeeded by her son, Don Pedro V. (1853–1861).

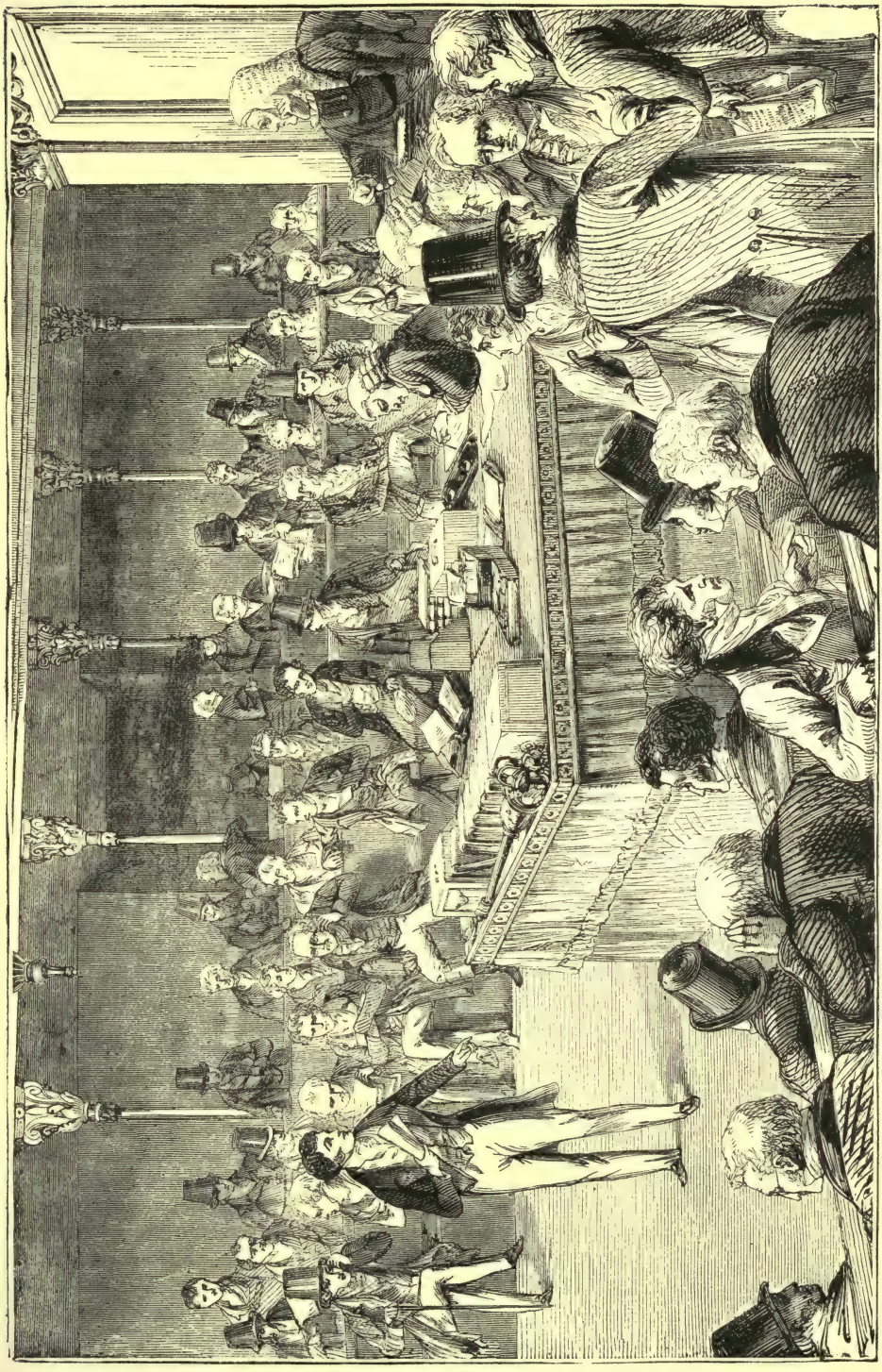


GREAT BRITAIN AND THE DESPOTIC POWERS.

ENGLAND AT THE ACCESSION OF WILLIAM IV.—EARL GREY AND THE REFORM BILL.—COBBETT AND THE RADICALS.—THE CHARTISTS.—CORN LAWS.—INCOME-TAX, ETC.—IRISH AFFAIRS.—DANIEL O'CONNELL AND REPEAL.—CAUSES OF IRISH DISCONTENT.—PROJECTED MEASURES OF CONCILIATION.—THE MELBOURNE MINISTRY.—ANTAGONISM BETWEEN "CELT" AND "SAXON."—THE IRISH OUTBREAK OF 1848.—FOREIGN AFFAIRS.—CANADA: DISCONTENTS AND INSURRECTION.—ENGLAND AND THE EAST.—AFGHANISTAN AND DOST MOHAMMED KHAN.—SIR CHARLES NAPIER AND SCINDE.—WAR WITH CHINA.—THE DESPOTIC STATES OF EUROPE.—AUSTRIA.—REPRESSIVE MEASURES AGAINST LIBERALISM.—BOHEMIA.—THE ITALIAN PROVINCES.—METTERNICH'S SYSTEM.—PRUSSIA UNDER FREDERICK WILLIAM IV.: CHARACTER OF THE KING.—RUSSIA.—POWER OF THE EMPEROR NICHOLAS.—TYRANNY OF THE CZAR.—POLAND.—INTRIGUES WITH TURKEY.—WAR IN THE CAUCASUS.

THE ENGLISH GOVERNMENT.

THE July Revolution, which occurred almost simultaneously with the accession to the throne of the liberal-minded king William IV. (June, 1830), was not without a great effect on England. In consequence of the old existing election law, seats in Parliament were almost exclusively in the hands of the aristocracy. In the counties, the nobility had well nigh absolute control over elections, so that they constantly introduced into Parliament the younger sons of noble families, or the adherents and champions of their own principles. In the representation of the towns, evils of another kind prevailed. Places which in course of time had degenerated to insignificant or "rotten" boroughs, possessed the ancient right of sending one or more members to Parliament; while other places, and among them the most important towns in the kingdom, either did not possess the right of sending members at all, or under such restrictions



LORD JOHN RUSSELL INTRODUCING THE REFORM BILL IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

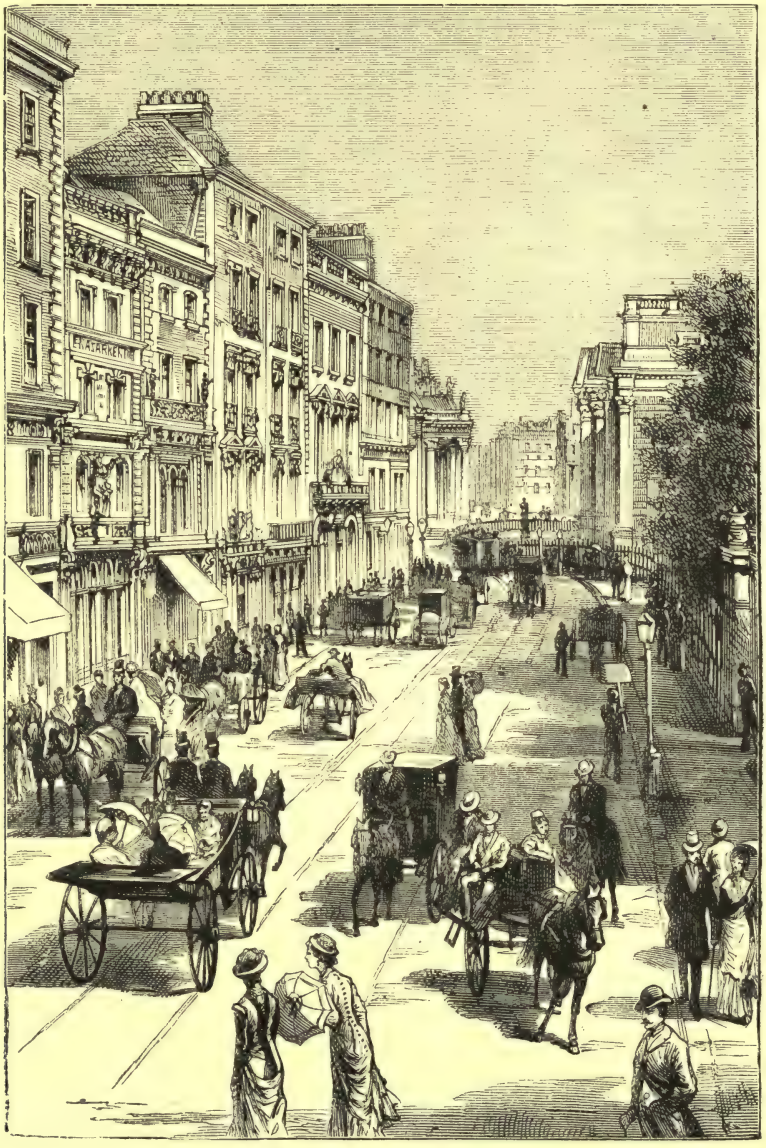
that the number of their members of Parliament was in the greatest disproportion to their population. The Whig ministry, with Earl Grey at the head, was therefore in favour of the scheme of parliamentary reform introduced into the Lower House (March, 1831), by which the rotten boroughs were despoiled of their former privileges, and members of Parliament were proportioned to the changed conditions. This Reform Bill met with the most obstinate resistance from the aristocracy; but the threatening attitude of the people at last compelled the passing of the measure (June, 1832). This new law, as well as the Act of Municipal Reform, passed three years later, was a victory gained by the Whigs over the Tories, of the well-to-do middle class over the aristocracy. Agitations were now commenced by the democratic party and the Radicals, headed by William Cobbett, who laid down their principles in a charter, which was to place the working classes in a position to improve their socical standing by co-operation in the legislation. They consequently obtained the name of Chartists, and their most influential leaders were the fiery Feargus O'Connor and the talented Ernest Jones. The reform of the Corn Laws and their final abolition (1846), which allowed of the importation of foreign corn into the country, may be regarded as a great triumph. The aristocracy long resisted the innovation with all their strength, so that native produce might maintain its high price; and as at the same time the immense national debt rendered necessary the most oppressive tolls on the imported necessaries of life, a heavy burden was laid upon the working classes. In order to cover the deficiency in the revenue caused by the diminution of the corn-tax, an income-tax of three per cent. was introduced by Sir Robert Peel's ministry; and at the same time it was endeavoured to give a new impetus to trade by abolishing the former system of tolls, and asserting the principle of free-trade. A proposed law for the admission of Jews into Parliament (1847), without imposing the Christian oath, was long obstinately resisted by the High Church party, but was finally carried in a restricted form in 1850. The nation sustained a heavy loss in the sudden death of the great statesman, Sir Robert Peel, by a fall from his horse.

IRISH AFFAIRS.



SINCE the emancipation of the Catholics had permitted the Irish people to send representatives of their own blood to the English Parliament, their complaints were not so unavailing as formerly, especially when the great popular leader and orator, Daniel O'Connell, gave force to their complaints by the threat of a repeal of the Union, a separation of Ireland from the legislation and jurisdiction of the "Saxon." The Irish, in their overpopulated island, who followed exclusively agricultural pursuits under the most unfavourable conditions of tenure, and who possessed no manufactures or trade, had fallen into a state of want and misery which increased with years. The growing impoverishment of the country, intensified by a famine caused

by bad potato harvests, rendered it not difficult for a talented demagogue like O'Connell to keep the country in a constant state of agitation, and by the watchword of Repeal to direct the whole strength of the people to one aim. The Catholic clergy, who exercised unlimited sway over the people



GRAFTON STREET, DUBLIN.

were in the service of O'Connell; his power became supreme, and monster meetings were held demanding the abolition of the payment of tithes to the Anglican clergy of Ireland. A terrible struggle was commenced, in which murder, incendiarism, and tumults played a lamentable part, until the

passing of an Irish Church Bill, which abolished Church tithes, lessened the number of Anglican bishoprics and benefices, made over the tithes to the possessor of the soil, and devoted part of the surplus to the improvement of education, and to the establishment of schools for Catholics as well as Protestants; and the Irish Coercion Bill, which empowered the Lord-Lieutenant to suppress all meetings and societies which he deemed injurious to the public peace, and to place every disturbed district under martial law. As long as the Whigs were at the helm of the State, Irish affairs formed the principal object of parliamentary consideration. A Poor Law Bill was first introduced, and a proposal was then made to transform the hated tithes,—the payment of which the Irish refused so obstinately that the Government was compelled to support the Anglican clergy with armed force—into a tax, to be paid to the Government, and by them divided among those who were entitled to it within five years. But this proposal also was frustrated by the obstinacy of the Upper House; and as about the same time the Government awakened the religious zeal of the High Church party, by favouring a measure for admitting English Dissenters to the academical dignities of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, a tremendous storm was raised against the Whigs, which resulted in King William summoning Sir Robert Peel, the "son of a wool-spinner of Tamworth," to form a Government (December, 1834). But however much the wise statesman endeavoured to conciliate both parties by his principle of "conservatism with progressive improvement," his new Irish Tithes Bill was defeated, in consequence of which the Tories resigned, and the Whig Cabinet returned to power under the presidency of Melbourne (April, 1835). During the Whig Government, the Tories and zealous Church party organized the so-called Orange Lodges and Societies, which soon became so antagonistic to public order and security that Parliament was at last obliged to take steps against them. All attempts of the English Liberals, and especially of the humane and liberal-minded Viceroy Lord Mulgrave (Marquis of Normanby), to liberate Ireland from the yoke of religious intolerance, were rendered fruitless—on the one side by the indolence and stupidity of the Irish, and on the other by the ecclesiastical and aristocratic narrow-mindedness of the Tories, and the prejudices of the House of Lords. When the Whigs, who possessed the full confidence of Queen Victoria (20th June, 1837), were compelled to yield their places to the Tories, the hope of Catholic Ireland of gaining deliverance by means of reform was dashed to the ground. O'Connell therefore renewed his agitation for repeal; and gathering immense assemblies about him, he excited the national hatred of the Celtic Irish against the "Saxon" English. A tremendous excitement took possession of the whole people; the farmers refused tithes and rents, and attempts were made on the lives of the owners of land; armed bands marched throughout the green island, and carried murder and incendiarism into the homes and property of the rich, who generally squandered their incomes in a foreign country. All the means which the Tories brought into operation—the renewal of the Coercion Bill, prohibition of public meetings, and the trial and short imprisonment of the "agitator"—only availed to procure a temporary tranquillity. It mattered not that England, at the great famine which occurred in consequence of the bad harvest of 1846, made the greatest sacrifices both by public and private charity; the Irish, who saw in the English the authors of their misery, regarded this benevolence but as a duty, and continued their agitations for repeal. The death of the great agitator

(1847), it is true, deprived this movement of its power and motive force, and led to dissensions in the camp of the repealers ; but the February Revolution in France acted as a fire-brand cast on combustible material, and gave rise to a condition of lawlessness and anarchy which at last reached a revolutionary height. It was not, however, difficult for the military forces of the English to repress the insurrection ; the popular leader, Smith O'Brien, was banished to Australia, but subsequently obtained a pardon from the Government, and ended his days in his own country.

Foreign Affairs.



BROAD England pursued a noble and successful policy. Possessed of a superior naval force, and of a strictly disciplined army, it was England's proud prerogative to act as mediator and umpire in any disturbance or complication in foreign affairs. Chiefly intent on the improvement of trade and industry, the British Government sought in every possible manner to maintain a peaceful condition in Europe ; while in territories outside Europe their attention was directed to the strengthening and increase of English dominions, to the extension of their colonial system, and the upholding of the British supremacy.

In Canada demands had been made by the colonists with regard to several points of national liberty and independence, which had been refused by the home Government, and an insurrection appeared imminent. The English Government, however, met the threatening danger with energy and resolution, and despatched the talented Lord Durham, the head of the radical Whigs, as governor to Canada with dictatorial power.

The new governor succeeded by firmness and leniency in restoring order ; and though his policy drew down upon him the displeasure of the ministry, so that he speedily resigned his office and returned to England, yet tranquillity was not again disturbed. Subsequently negotiations were commenced for uniting all the British possessions in North America by a common representative Government into one State.

In the East Indies the influence of Great Britain was still further extended ; it included even Afghanistan, with the towns of Peshawur, Cabul, Ghizni, Candahar, etc., and the territory stretching from the right bank of the Indus. In 1840 an insurrection took place among the Afghans, headed by Dost Mohammed and his energetic son Akbar, which, after much bloody strife, was repressed by a military force under the brave governor, Ellenborough, who once more restored the *prestige* of Great Britain. The arms of England were next directed against the country of Scinde, which was subjugated by General Napier ; and the brave and warlike race of Sikhs, after a spirited resistance, were compelled to yield to the superior power (1846).

Of not less importance for the extension of English supremacy and English trade was the war with China. In the year 1836, the Chinese Government, apprehensive of the injurious effects of the increasing consumption of opium among the enervated people, issued a strict prohibition against the use or sale

of opium—a measure which inflicted a heavy blow on the trade of the English, and ultimately led to a war between the two countries. After a feeble prosecution of the war in the first instance, the English at length proceeded to capture the island of Tschusan, and even threatened the important city of Nanking. This broke the resistance of the Chinese, and a peace was arranged (August 11th, 1842), which opened to the English five Chinese harbours, secured to them twenty-one million dollars and the island of Hong-Kong. But the opium trade continued, in spite of the indignant protests of many who regarded it as immoral.



QUEBEC.

The Despotic States of Europe.—Austria.

In Austria, the chancellor Metternich was in reality the ruler of the State, and the inspirer of its policy, as he had been under the Emperor Francis I., who died March, 1835, and continued so under the weak but good-natured Ferdinand I. An enemy to every kind of democratic government, whether Republican or Constitutional, Prince Metternich was a zealous champion of absolute monarchical power, believing it to be a bulwark against the encroachments of the Revolution. Under his guidance, the Empire was placed under the strictest supervision. All printed matter from abroad was subjected to the closest scrutiny, in the hope of preventing the poisonous contagion of Liberal ideas,

and secret police and spies maintained a constant supervision. While in the West the people were demanding a still larger share in the government, and endeavouring to assert the principle of national sovereignty, in Austria the maxim of "everything *for* the people, not *through* the people," formed the aim of political life. In Bohemia, Steyermark, and the kingdom of Lombardy and Venice, the efforts of the people to obtain representative government were also set aside; while in the Croatian and Illyrian provinces the natives could only get a hearing when backed up by a threatening attitude on the part of a



BRITISH TROOPS ON THE MARCH TO CABUL.

combative people. Hungary alone maintained its national representation. Austrian influence had everywhere proved a upas-tree. It had failed in its mission of standard-bearer of German culture in the East, and the ancient watchword of "Austria to the front" seemed forgotten. Metternich may be regarded as the originator of all the measures that cramped and fettered Germany's noblest struggles. Under his influence, priestcraft was pitted against all progress alike in Spain, Portugal, and Switzerland; and a helping hand was everywhere held out to assist reaction against freedom and enlightenment.



THE ROYAL PALACE AT POTSDAM.

PRUSSIA.

IN Prussia matters remained at a stand-still until the death of Frederick William III. (June 7th, 1840), except that the king's distrust of Liberal tendencies increased with age, and resulted in yet sterner measures of repression against the Liberal party. An arrogant "bureaucracy" conducted all matters of administration, taxation oppressed the common people, and the system of education was placed under the most rigid supervision. Above all, the Church and

religious matters were closely watched and controlled, as the king suffered no deviation from orthodoxy, and punished with the loss of political rights those who resisted. His successor, Frederick William IV., educated in a period of exceptional literary and scientific culture, departed spasmodically from his father's policy. Relying on his own sagacity, he was at first disposed to relax the reins, and permit a certain amount of liberty to the press and public speaking; but finding how much even a slight measure of latitude excited ardent longings after freedom, he revoked this permission, and had recourse to a more reactionary policy. In all Frederick William's actions a perpetual conflict may be traced between broad and noble views and deep-rooted prejudices,—between a desire for the true welfare of his people and a self-assertion of his own royal dignity and the divine right of kings.



RUSSIAN PEASANTS.

Russia.—Position of the Empire.

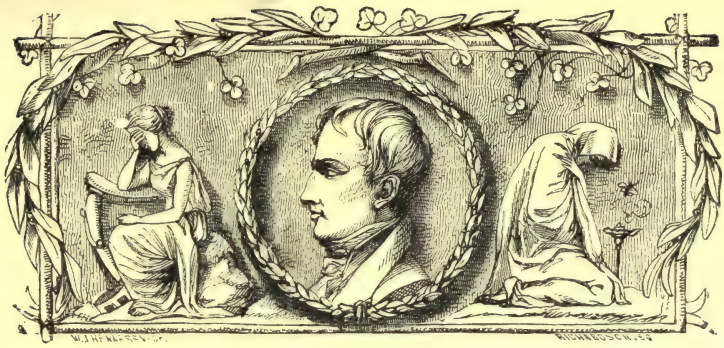
AFTER the suppression of a sanguinary revolt in the army, some of the originators of which had perished on the scaffold, while others had been sent to a living death in the Siberian mines or ice-fields, the Emperor Nicholas took secure possession of the most mighty of thrones (1825–1855).

The liberal views of Alexander, who had permitted liberty of the press, and as much slackening of the bonds of serfdom as he deemed admissible, found no favour in the eyes of the new autocrat. His efforts were mainly directed towards the organization of a propaganda of orthodoxy, that by degrees all dissenting elements might be absorbed within the State-Church, thus riveting all the offshoots of the scattered Greek Church under one

supreme head, viz. the Czar himself. The position of Russia and her people was one of Cimmerian darkness, and that publicity which had proved so fatal to the peace of other European States had failed to penetrate, as yet, Russia's civil or military existence; but the meagre accounts gleaned from travellers or reports that had oozed out from discontented officials and got abroad in the world, afforded a glimpse into a country where one man ruled supreme over the lives and liberties of millions. The emperor was head of Church and State; the source of power, the maker of all laws. All the various officers of State were but imperial servants to fulfil the Czar's commands, but indemnified themselves for such a state of bondage by unbridled corruption and dishonesty. The nobles had vast wealth and property, but were as dependent on the emperor as the serfs were on them; and indeed, it was regarded as the wisest policy always to keep the nobles in check by the fear of their own serfs, so that every amelioration in the bondsman's condition should emanate from the Czar directly, thus rendering it impossible for any nobleman to win the love or affection of his serf by humanity or fair dealing. Absolute monarchy is upheld by fear and bondage. The penalty of death was nominally done away with, but degrading and humiliating punishments ensured obedience to the Czar's commands and decrees or ukases. Scarcely a ray of civilization had penetrated the serf's mud cabin; he spent his joyless life in a state of bondage and superstition.

Russian politics aimed at uniformity in her home government, and at extension of power and dominion abroad. In *Poland* every effort was made to obliterate all traces of national religion, language, and customs; the evangelical peasant population of the Baltic provinces were lured into the Greek Catholic Church by promises of money and privileges, and every attempt was made to regulate the whole intellectual and religious life according to a uniform plan.

Foreign Affairs.—In foreign politics the Russian Government pursued a prominent part. She sought to bring the weaker States under her influence by threats and strategy, the stronger ones by that wily diplomacy in which Russia excels every other nation. *Turkey* was drawn completely into her interests by crafty treaties. *Moldavia and Wallachia* became tributary principalities under Russian protection. *Prussia*, sorely against public opinion, was persuaded to form a treaty, whilst all intercourse was cut off with the East Prussian provinces by the line of the frontier. A successful war was waged with *Persia* (1828), by which Russia gained two provinces on the other side of the Caucasus, together with the town of Erivan; and Russian diplomacy exercised its influence with the weak-minded Shah of Persia, after the conclusion of the peace, to disturb the English colonies in that country. The practical English population immediately supplied the warlike mountaineers of the Caucasus with arms, and they defended their freedom and nationality against the "Northern Colossus" with marvellous bravery and perseverance. The Russians sought for two whole years to subjugate this heroic race of Circassians at enormous expenditure of military force, but in vain.



REVOLUTIONARY OUTBREAKS AND FALL OF THRONES, 1848–1849.

ITALIAN AFFAIRS.—PIUS IX.—NAPLES AND SICILY UNDER KING FERDINAND "BOMBA."—GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND.—PRUSSIA.—BAVARIA AND ITS TROUBLES.—FREE CORPS AND THE SONDERBUND IN SWITZERLAND.—THE REVOLUTION OF FEBRUARY, 1848, IN PARIS.—THE REFORM BANQUETS.—UNPOPULARITY OF THE GOVERNMENT.—THE OUTBREAK.—ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SECOND REPUBLIC.—LAMARTINE AND LOUIS BLANC.—NATIONAL WORKSHOPS.—THE JUNE OUTBREAK AND CAVAIGNAC.—LOUIS NAPOLEON, PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC.



THE AFFAIRS OF ITALY.

IN June, 1846, occurred the death of Pope Gregory XVI., a man of simple, disciplined habits, but an enemy to the new political and religious tendencies, and without solicitude for the welfare of his State or the happiness of his people. He was succeeded by Mastai Ferretti, as Pius IX. (1792–1880), a man of progressive ideas, who was inspired with the belief that he had a mission to perform as a reformer and regenerator of the Church State. His gentleness and popularity soon won him the love of the people. He commenced by retrenchments in his own household, granted greater freedom to the press, and confirmed the concessions that had already been made. He also organized a body of Roman volunteers as a defence against "Young Italy." A mighty convulsion stirred the heart of the land, so long oppressed by priestcraft and military despotism. "Pio Nono!" became the watchword of Liberals and patriots. In *Naples and Sicily*, where the people groaned under the oppression of foreign troops, and grievances of every kind, both religious



CASTLE OF ST. ELMO, NAPLES.

and political, the demand for reform and a free constitution became daily more formidable; more especially since Sicily had broken the chain that bound her to Naples, and, trusting to English aid, had raised the standard of independence. This gave rise to a revolt in Naples, which resulted in the king's promising the people a free constitution. His example was followed either voluntarily or from compulsion by Leopold, Duke of Tuscany, who, despite his Austrian origin, had won his people's love, and made his principality one of the happiest in Italy; also by Charles Albert, King of Piedmont and Sardinia, who having sought to obliterate the memory of his earlier connection with the Liberal party by a return to the old system of government, now endeavoured, by another change, to win the attachment of the Italian people. The Duke of Modena, a zealous champion of the Divine right of princes, took refuge in flight from the revolutionary spirit of his subjects. The death of Marie Louise of Parma (December, 1847), who had little appreciated the greatness of her destiny, and by a low marriage had seemed oblivious of Napoleon's memory and his wondrous career, roused the hopes of the Italians for national unity and freedom. Austria and the Jesuits, a temporal and a spiritual power, alone seemed the obstacles in the way of their fulfilment.

Germany and Switzerland.

PRUSSIA.—The convulsions that took place in 1847 were the forerunners of the mighty upheaval of 1848. When Frederick William IV. decided on granting the reforms demanded by public opinion, and summoned the "United Assembly" to Berlin, the public described the meeting as the "assembly of notables," without suspecting that events would speedily confirm the appellation. Many voices counselled the rejection of a constitution which halted so far behind former promises and present needs, and in which the all-important points of the levying of taxes, freedom of petition, and the making of laws were not granted to the people. But the monarch declared in his speech from the throne that he would never give a paper constitution. The king's will overcame the opposition, and the meeting of the orders had no actual result beyond the impression made on the public mind by the eloquence and talents displayed by the assembly. In the meantime great poverty prevailed among the lower classes; and the intelligence of the terrible famine, which had produced a pestilence in Upper Silesia, combined with the inflammatory revolutionary literature, and the generally prevailing misery, produced a great excitement, which at last resulted in insurrections in Berlin, Stuttgart, Munich, and other towns. These were speedily repressed by military force, but the unfortunate condition of the people remained unrelieved, and the germs of discontent were as far as ever from being exterminated.

Bavaria.—About this time the German people were roused to indignation by the intelligence that the aged king, Louis of Bavaria, had fallen into the snares of an adventuress, Lola Montez, who not only led him into the most absurd extravagances, but also made him threaten to displace any one who refused to do homage to this modern Du Barri. The Ultramontane party, who had hitherto exercised absolute control over both the king and his kingdom, came into collision with Lola Montez, and were suddenly in danger of losing their sway, while the ministry and the heads of Ultramontanism at the university were dismissed. An uneasy feeling prevailed amongst the

people, and spread through all classes, at the king's weakness and hallucination; and on the eve of the French Revolution this sentiment burst forth in open revolt. After a short struggle, the king was obliged to revoke the suspension of the Academical lectures and to yield to public opinion.

Free Corps and the Sonderbund in Switzerland.—Simultaneously with these events, the proceedings in Switzerland acted like an electric spark on the excitable minds of the people. For over a thousand years, Catholic Switzerland had been united to the bishopric of Constance, and afforded a stronghold to the Jesuit party. The July Revolution interfered with the Ultramontane victory; democratic reform was adverse to the hierarchy; and the party of progress decreed at the Baden Conference that the Church should be placed under State supervision, that national education should be free, and that the convents should be converted into places of general use for religious purposes. Disregarding the protest of the Romish party, several cantons, especially the Radical Government of Aargau, took the management of the monastic property into their own hands; and on the clerical party making a stand against



THE LAKE OF LUCERNE.

this action, Government seized the opportunity for gaining possession of the eight monasteries. Henceforward Switzerland was divided into two camps, the Radical and the Conservative. The headquarters of the latter were in the seven Catholic cantons—Schweiz, Uri, Unterwalden, Lucerne, Zug, Freiburg, and Wallis.

The attempt of the Lucerne Conservatives to place the education of youth in the canton in the hands of the Jesuits was obstinately opposed by the Liberal party, who organized free bands of armed men to wrest the supreme power from the opposite party. This movement was opposed by a league called the "Sonderbund," formed by the seven Catholic cantons. The Radical party, however, succeeded by a sudden stroke in overthrowing the governments of Geneva and Waadt. Pius IX. exhorted to peace, but did not venture to recognise the opposite party's victory by recalling the Jesuits; and as the Sonderbund had fallen under the influence of a small fanatical band, and refused to follow the decrees of the Diet, it was resolved to have recourse to the sword. Contrary to all experience in civil or religious warfare, the struggle was soon over. An army from Geneva, under the command of

General Dufour, an experienced officer, made an easy conquest of Freiburg and Lucerne, whereupon the other cantons yielded. This rapid solution of the difficulty caused Austria, France, and Prussia no small surprise. Guizot's courier found the Sonderbund, to whom he was charged with despatches, already dispersed. This policy of Guizot, who, at the occupation of Cracow, had declared the Vienna Treaty void, and yet acted on that treaty in favour of the Jesuits against the Radicals and Liberals, proved the death-blow of the July monarchy. England alone pursued a national policy in Switzerland as in Italy. Together with the Diet, a council of the States and a freely elected national council was established. To these timely reforms Switzerland owed the prolonged peace which she enjoyed, while all the rest of Europe was plunged into war and revolution.



POPE PIUS IX.

The Revolution of February in Paris.



LAMARTINE.

Reform Banquets.—It was unfortunate for the July dynasty that soon after the revival of the chamber where Guizot possessed a decided majority, the imputation of bribery and corruption which had been cast on the July Government should have been confirmed by the lawsuits gained against General Cubières and the Minister Teste, and that Emile de Girardin, the clever but unscrupulous editor of *La Presse*, detested by the Republicans for having shot Armand Carrel in a duel, should seem to be in the pay of the Ministry; also that swindling transactions should have been discovered about the court, and that the Duchess of Praslin's murder by her own husband in her bedroom in the dead of night should so plainly reveal the corruption and immorality of those who stood around the throne. The duke's suicide in prison soon after gave rise to the idea amongst the enraged populace that this second crime had been winked at, to avoid the shame of a public execution, and to save a duke from being judged and sentenced by the common law. All parties in the nation felt that a system of government, supported by such foul and rotten props, could not stand. Nothing but a fresh representation of the people, by extension of the franchise, could produce any change or improvement; a share by the nation, or at all events by the middle classes, in the choice of deputies, could alone render bribery of the electors or members impossible and make the chamber truly representative. Extension of the suffrage was loudly demanded, and became the watchword of the day—the ideal of both Legitimists and Republicans. To give this principle weight and publicity, and also bring to light the fact that the present majority in the chamber did not represent the voice of the people, *Reform banquets* were organized in several French towns, at which deputies from the Left (opposition) were present, and the crimes of the ruling system were fearlessly denounced in bold speeches and toasts. Events in Italy and Switzerland, where the sympathies of the French people were strongly antagonistic to the line of policy there pursued by the Government, served to increase the excitement, and called forth fresh demonstrations. Such was the public temper, when the chamber opened, and the Opposition at once decided on instituting a Reform banquet in Paris itself. The Government endeavoured to suppress it. The speech from the throne alluded to a movement instigated by "blind and inimical passions," and an obsolete law of the year 1790 was hunted up to afford a pretext for forbidding all such Reform banquets for the future. This violation of the right to form associations, and the resort to a law disused since the introduction of the Code Napoléon, excited great anger, and proved that constitutional rights were in danger. The discussions on the addresses upon the royal speech were consequently violent in the extreme. Guizot was accused of selling offices; Thiers criticised his inconsistent policy in Switzerland, where he had supported the Jesuits, formed a league with Austria, and forsaken and betrayed the Helvetian people, who had for centuries been their

allies. Nevertheless, the Ministerial party could not forego the triumph, in their reply to the address, of proposing a vote of censure on the agitation which



SWISS DOMESTIC ARCHITECTURE.

stirred up evil passions and carried people away. Despite the vehement opposition of the Left, this was passed, and Government would have obtained a

similar victory on the banquet question, had they had the Opposition alone to deal with in the chamber; for strongly as the heads of the Left, such as Odillon Barrot, Garnier-Pages, Arago, etc., defended the right to form associations, and, in defiance of the prohibition, issued invitations to the National Guard, the Opposition wavered, remained for the most part away from the banquet, and resolved instead, on presenting a petition at the next sitting, that the Ministry should be arraigned on the grounds of violating the constitution.

Downfall of the Orleans Dynasty.

BUT the people were already too much excited to be deterred, by the timorous and hesitating demeanour of the Deputies, from holding the projected demonstration. The streets were thronged with crowds of working men, students, and street boys, shouting loudly, "Reform! Down with Guizot!" They surrounded the Chamber of Deputies, and demanded the impeachment of the minister. The excitement of the people increased hourly; barricades were thrown up and defended in several streets. This state of strife continued for two days (February 22nd, 23rd) with ever-increasing fury. Then the king recalled the former minister Molé to the Tuileries, dismissed Guizot's ministry, and promised reform. The news ran like wild-fire amongst the people, and resulted in shouts of frantic joy. Amidst songs and jubilant outbursts, the populace streamed along through the streets; barricades vanished, houses were illuminated, the people embraced in the streets with a sense of victory. Towards evening, however, a crowd with flags and torches went surging along across the Boulevards, and, halting before the Foreign Office, demanded the illumination of the building. At that moment a shot was fired, and a report spread amongst the soldiers stationed there that the house was attacked. A volley was fired upon the crowd, which killed or wounded fifty-two persons. A frenzy seized the mob. A wagon was loaded with corpses, and paraded the principal streets with shouts of "To arms! They are killing us!" At midnight the bell of Nôtre Dame pealed forth, and on the morning of February 24th, all Paris was barricaded.



GENERAL LAMORICIÈRE.

In vain did the king now have recourse to the Left, and appoint Thiers, Odillon Barrot, and Arago ministers. It was too late. Victory seemed to incline more and more to the side of the people; the National Guard, under the command of General Lamoricière, acted on the defensive, but shunned a collision with the people. Louis Philippe at last recognised his error and his danger. He abdicated in favour of his grandson, the Comte de Paris, and appointed the Duchess of Orleans regent; but finding that even this act failed to produce any effect, and that the insurgents were advancing nearer and nearer to the palace gates, he

escaped with his consort by a back-gate to the sea-coast. Several days elapsed before the royal fugitives could safely embark for England, whither, after hair-breadth escapes, the remainder of the family, in different ways, followed them. A provisional government was established under the presidency of Dupont de L'Eure, which included Lamartine, Ledru-Rollin, Arago, Garnier-Pagès, Crémieux, and Louis Blanc. Meantime, the insurgents seized the Tuileries, and committed many depredations, but otherwise perpetrated no attack on either life or property.



FRENCH TROOPS, 1848.

The Republic.

A NATIONAL Assembly of broadly representative character was to determine the constitution of the future democratic republic. The Revolution having been the work of the working classes, their elevation and improvement was the main object of the new administration. It made a working man a member of the provisional government, and gave Louis Blanc full power to organize labour according to his own ideas. The socialistic system soon showed itself, however, in all its extravagance and impracticability. The national workshops which were established added enormously to the State expenditure, and increased the number of beggars daily; and it was soon apparent to every one that such an institution would have the most disastrous effects. It was one of the National As-

sembly's first measures, after it came into power, to close these workshops, and withdraw State aid from the workmen. This gave rise to a fresh disturbance, in which the Proletarians made an effort to obtain the mastery. Legitimists and Bonapartists secretly favoured them, and supplied them with money. This led to an outbreak, and to terrible scenes in June, when the "Red Republicans" signalized themselves by deeds of hideous barbarity. They murdered the brave General Bréa, and the good Archbishop Affre, even while he was acting as a messenger of peace. Horror-struck at the license thus exhibited by the lower classes of the people, the National Assembly appointed General Cavaignac dictator. During four days there was severe and bloody fighting; between ten and twelve thousand people were killed, and several generals. The insurgents were at last conquered, and the ringleaders were seized and executed. Paris was put under martial law. Thus protected, the Deputies proceeded with their deliberations over the new Republican Constitution. They would gladly have seen General Cavaignac elected by a majority to the President's chair; but the nation, dazzled by the Imperial name, chose Louis Napoleon Bonaparte by six million votes. Obedient to the law, and as submissive to the national will as he was valiant and patriotic, Cavaignac yielded up his high powers, without hesitation, into the hands of the successful candidate.



NAPOLEON III.



PROGRESS OF THE REVOLUTION.

GERMANY.—REVIVAL OF POPULAR SPIRIT.—DEMANDS FOR REFORM AND CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT.—OUTBREAK IN BADEN.—AUSTRIA AND METTERNICH.—FLIGHT AND RETURN OF THE EMPEROR FERDINAND.—ATTEMPTS TO UNITE GERMANY.—PRELIMINARY PARLIAMENT AND NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.—ARCHDUKE JOHN OF AUSTRIA.—SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN AND POSEN.—ITALY'S VICISSITUDES AND INSURRECTIONS.—THE PAPAL STATES.—ROMAN REPUBLIC.—GARIBALDI.—INTERFERENCE OF FRANCE.—CHARLES ALBERT OF SARDINIA, AND VICTOR EMMANUEL.—THE GERMAN NATIONAL ASSEMBLY AT FRANKFORT.—THE BERLIN ASSEMBLY.—THE AUSTRIAN DIET AND THE INSURRECTION IN VIENNA.

GERMANY'S GREAT OPPORTUNITY.



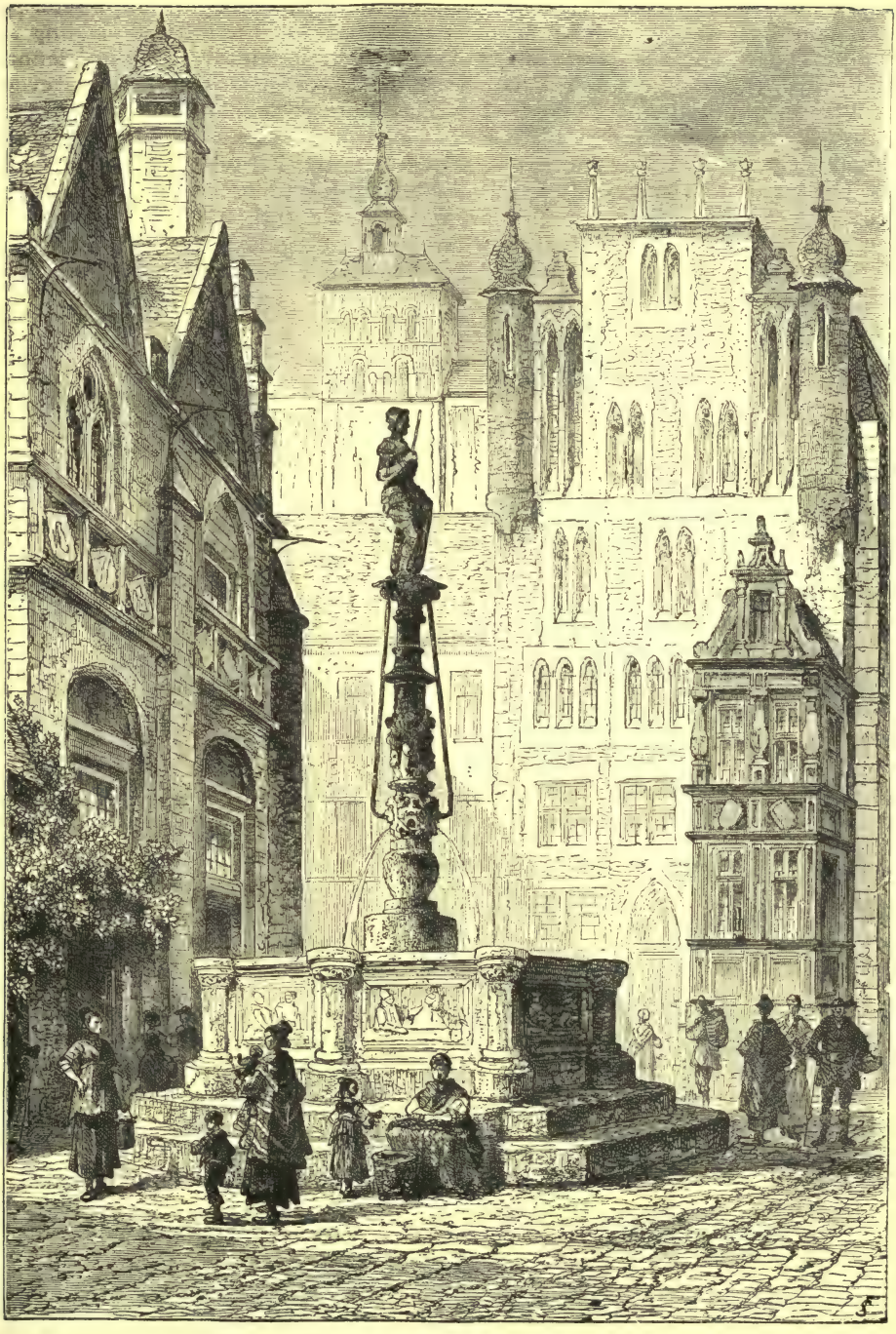
POWERFUL as had been the effect of the July Revolution on the rest of Europe, that of February proved still more dangerous in its influence on other European nations. In Italy, Poland, Ireland, and Switzerland, there arose violent conflicts, excited party feeling, and a passionate sentiment of nationality, though it was in Germany and at Baden that the first results of this agitation of popular feeling showed themselves. The activity of political life, which had long distinguished that Duchy above the other German States, appeared to give it a right to take the initiative in progress and reform. Urgent petitions were presented to the recently assembled Diet, demanding freedom of the press, the oaths, the raising of volunteers under leaders of

their own selection, and a German Parliament; the Baden Government yielded not only to these demands, as far as practicable, but went so far as to abolish feudal imposts and grant compensation to the losers out of the State treasury. Numbers of unpopular officials and people about the court were dismissed; unpopular deputies placed their resignation in the hands of their constituents, and were replaced by others. Baden's example had a great effect on the other German States. Similar demands were made, and gradually yielded to. In Würtemberg, Saxony, and other States, the heads of the Liberal opposition were called to be leaders of the Government; class abuses were abolished, election laws underwent a change, the Diet was remodelled in a liberal spirit, and reliable men summoned to discuss the formation of a new Constitution. But the victory of the Liberals was most complete and decided in the revolution at Vienna and Berlin.

Austria.—While Louis Philippe had been accounted the first of diplomatists, Prince Metternich was regarded as the greatest of living statesmen. His word was law amongst the German Governments. But his hour also had come. He refused to recognise the spirit of the age, and fancied the weak props of State policy would prove a sufficient barrier against the vehement onslaught of youthful freedom. He had failed to perceive that the literature of the opposition press had stealthily crept into Austria, and ruthlessly exposed the rottenness of its system. Prince Metternich had lived on the principle of "after me, the deluge," but it served him no longer. The news from Paris created a fever of excitement throughout the country. The States of Hungary besieged the Imperial Government with petitions for an independent national parliament under an Elector, for reform of the Constitution, diminution of taxes, and for immunity from the burden of the Austrian national debt. The same thing took place in Prague, where, in the previous year, the Bohemian States had been deeply offended in the matter of their rights and privileges; and finally in Vienna itself, where the estates of the empire assembled in March. The secrecy observed as to financial affairs awoke a growing uneasiness. In some places paper money was refused; trade and commerce were at a standstill; the number of men out of work increased daily. In such a state of affairs the boyish disturbance got up by the students naturally led to grave results, and at last ended in a resort to arms. The plunder and the excesses committed by the mob proclaimed the dissolution of the old system and the commencement of a lawless period, and the general use of arms added to the danger. The evils of such a system as that of Metternich were now first apparent. A people kept in political ignorance, and unripe for a free Constitution, demanded liberties and privileges which they had no idea how to use. The press poured forth inflammatory matter every day, and by its violence hindered the advance of reform; and the right of public assembly was perverted to the holding of tumultuous mob meetings. The emperor, disquieted at this state of affairs, deemed it prudent to retire to Innsbruck (May, 1848), and his withdrawal was soon followed by another outbreak more dangerous and violent than the first.

Soon after, when the tumult had been appeased, an assembly of the States was opened by Duke John; and on the 12th August, amidst the acclamations of the people, Ferdinand once more made his entry into Vienna.

The Berlin March Days.—Long did the Prussian Government resist the powerful impulse of modern times, but only to feel the shock more heavily in the end. Many patriotic men, who considered that a great and united Germany was only possible in conjunction with Prussia, urged the king to



VIEW IN HILDESHEIM, PRUSSIA.

make no delay to recognise the spirit of the age, but by prompt reforms to regain the estranged affections of the people. But the idea of yielding to compulsion was odious to the king. The news of the insurrection in Vienna, and the threatening attitude assumed by the lower classes, at last, however, convinced him of the necessity for reform. Numerous liberal measures were granted, and the formation of Germany into one Federal Empire was proposed. Gladly as these reforms were received, the hatred of the people for the military, and the demand for a volunteer guard to be substituted in their stead, did not diminish. The uproar increased, a detachment of infantry filed out of the palace, and mutual hostilities were commenced. On the 19th March the struggle still remained undecided; but at last the king yielded, withdrew the troops, and consented to the establishment of a citizen force for the protection of the town.

Preliminary Parliament and National Assembly.

MEANTIME a mighty change had taken place in all the German States. In Bavaria, King Louis yielded to public opinion, and placed the sceptre in the hands of the Crown Prince, in March, 1848. In Hesse-Darmstadt the old duke surrendered the government to his son a few months before his death. The Liberals had gained a complete victory; freedom of the press, the swearing of allegiance to the Constitution on the part of the military, and the right of union, were the most important concessions of the new Governments. But events soon proved that the political principles of the Liberals were of little avail to cure the evils of that disastrous period.

On the 18th of May the sittings of the freely elected National Assembly were opened at Frankfort; and after endless discussions, it was determined to appoint an irresponsible administrator of the empire, who was to surround himself with a responsible ministry. A large majority finally pronounced in favour of Archduke John of Austria, who, on the 11th July, made his solemn entry into Frankfort, and declared himself ready to undertake his high office.

Schleswig-Holstein and Posen.

SOON after, the German frontiers were the scene of war and bloodshed. In consequence of a revolutionary movement in the Danish capital, by which the king was compelled to proclaim the incorporation of Schleswig with the kingdom, a provisional Government was formed in Schleswig-Holstein, with William Veseler at its head; this was the signal for separation from Denmark, and a sanguinary war (April, 1848). Germany took part with the weaker side, when the little Schleswig-Holstein army was beaten at Bau, and compelled to retreat to the fortress of Rendsburg. Subsequently, however, the Danish troops were defeated at Schleswig, and driven from the continent.

But the want of a German fleet rendered the struggle unequal, and maritime commerce in the north suffered not a little. This fact, and the menacing attitude assumed by Russia, Sweden, and England in favour of Denmark, induced the German Government to accept diplomatic proposals,

and to conclude a somewhat doubtful truce, which actually left the proclamation of Schleswig's incorporation with Denmark still in force.

In the Prussian province of Posen the Polish inhabitants raised the standard of independence and nationality; but after a barbarous war between the combatants, the Prussian troops won the day against the insurgents. Even in England the democratic spirit of the times ventured to make itself felt. But the excitement awakened by the news from France, and a few riots in some of the manufacturing towns, passed off without any serious consequences.

Italy's Vicissitudes and Insurrections.

THE news of the February Revolution resulted, in Switzerland, in the revolt of the canton Neuenburg from Prussia and the complete victory of the radicals; in Italy, it gave rise to internal commotions and a national war with Austria.



CHARLES ALBERT.

SICILY maintained her independence against Naples, and obstinately rejected every advance towards reconciliation on the part of King Ferdinand. The degenerate and servile Neapolitans endured the yoke of military

despotism; but the Sicilians rejected the Bourbons, and chose the Duke of Genoa, a son of Charles Albert, to be their king. The beautiful and unfortunate island had not yet, however, fulfilled her destiny. After a French and English intervention, which led to the division of the island between the Neapolitans and a provisional Government under Ruggiero Settimo, hostilities broke out anew in April, 1849. After a vain attempt at resistance, the town



GARIBALDI.

of Syracuse was captured by the Neapolitans (May 14th), and the unhappy island was once more brought under the sway of the Bourbon military monarchy.

In the Papal States the enthusiasm for the Pope declined on his failing to satisfy the demands of the people, and on his declaring a proclamation of war with Austria as inconsistent with his religious position and dignity.

The astute Italian, Rossi of Carrara, who had held an influential post under Louis Philippe, and had carried out important diplomatic negotiations, was summoned by Pius IX., as a constitutional minister, to assist in drawing the reins of government tighter, as they threatened to slip entirely out of the hands of the Church. Rossi, however, incurred the hatred of the Roman democrats to such a degree that, at the opening of the Chambers, he was stabbed in the throat on the steps of the Senate, in the very spot where Cæsar fell, whereupon the mob, led on by the Prince of Canino (November, 1848), surrounded the Quirinal, and compelled the Pope to appoint a radical ministry under Mamiani. Law and order forsook the Eternal City from that moment.

Alarmed at the turn affairs were taking, the Pope fled, in disguise, to *Gaeta*, where he formed a new ministry, and issued a protest against the proceedings at Rome. This step threw the advantage entirely into the hands of the



GENERAL OUDINOT.

Republican party. A new Constitutional Assembly was summoned (February, 1849), which in one of its first sittings divested the Papacy of its temporal power, established a Roman Republic, and strained every nerve to effect the unity of Italy under a democratic-republican Parliament. The spiritual menaces of the Pope were regarded by the people with derision. A provisional Government was instituted, and three men (Triumvirate) undertook the guidance of affairs ; the Constitutional Assembly made use of some of the Church property to purchase small freeholds for the poor, and Garibaldi organized a force from amongst the democrats and volunteers.

Garibaldi was a political refugee who, after a long sojourn in America, had returned to his native land, and done good service as a free-lance in the struggle with Austria. The unfortunate result of the fresh contest in Northern Italy, which had sent a crowd of fugitives to Rome, together with the arrival of Mazzini, the active leader of "Young Italy" and the soul of the democratic

party, increased the revolutionary ardour in Rome. It was decided that the States of the Church should be defended with the utmost energy, as the last asylum of freedom and also as a centre from which to work. While the tempest was at its height, General Oudinot landed at Civita Vecchia with a French army, and surrounded Rome. In vain did the new-comers declare that they came as friends to save the capital from Austrians and Neapolitans alike; the democrats rejected the proffered hand of peace, and prepared to make a stubborn resistance. For weeks they set the French troops at defiance, but were at last overcome, and the French army entered the city conditionally (July, 1849). The provisional Government was at once dismissed, and a foreign military occupation substituted. Garibaldi, Mazzini, and others, took flight. The Pope remained some time in voluntary exile, and did not return to the rebellious city till April, 1850.



GARIBALDI AND VICTOR EMMANUEL.

Re-establishment of Austrian Rule in Milan and Venice.—In spite of the liberal reforms granted by the Grand Duke Leopold of Tuscany, the radical propaganda at last proved too strong for him, and, after the summoning of a constituent assembly, he was compelled to flight, and a temporary republic was established under Guerazzi's leadership (February, 1849). But only a few weeks had elapsed when Leopold was recalled by a counter-revolution amongst his own people, and the old administration was reinstated. Duke Francis of Modena and Duke Charles of Parma were also unable to weather

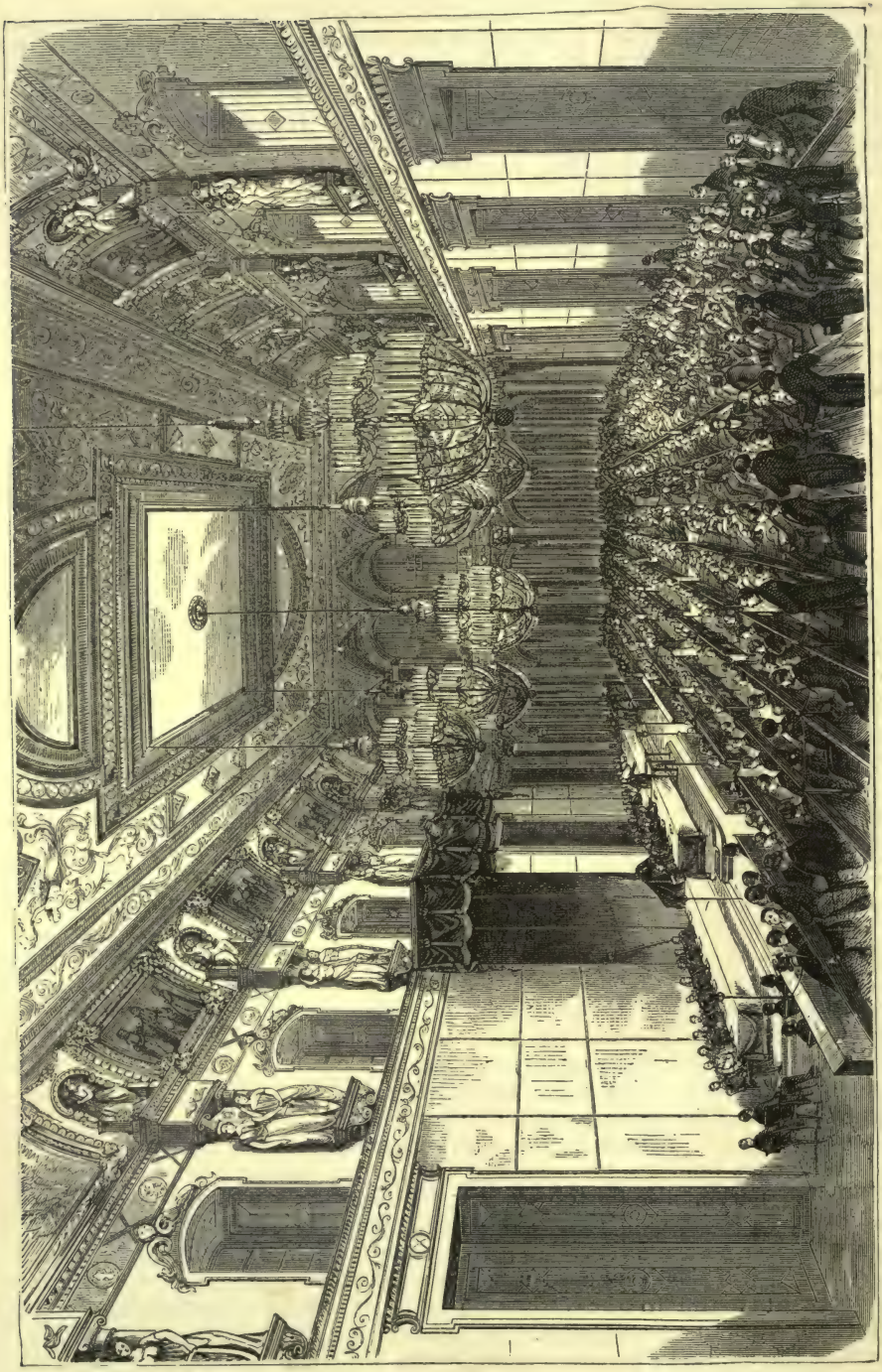
the storm. They left their States, entered into alliance with Austria, and shared first in her defeat, then in her success. In Northern Italy, Charles Albert, King of Piedmont and Sardinia, a well-meaning man, but infirm of purpose and incompetent as a soldier, thought the present moment a fitting one for attacking Austria. Lombardy and some Italian towns joined him, and some temporary successes led him to hope for ultimate victory; but his incapacity as a leader speedily ruined the patriots' hopes, and, after much bloodshed, his defeat at Novara ended the war. The king, in his despair, resigned his crown to his son, Victor Emmanuel; the young king promptly concluded a truce with the victorious general; but the country rebelled against this measure, and was only brought to submit by force of arms. Venice met with a similar fate, and the double-eagle once more spread its wings over the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. Sardinia was the one spot in Italy where the Italian tricolour still floated.

Legislative Contests of the German Assembly, and Hungary's Overthrow.

The National Legislative Assembly in the "Pauls-kirche" at Frankfort. The Central Power.—Although the German movement was essentially democratic in its origin, it did not attempt to attack the principle of monarchy, a proof that the bulk of the nation simply desired to obtain a system of free government and to effect national unity, under which the numerous petty States could develope their resources. To create such a federal body, and promote the aggrandizement and prosperity of the Fatherland, was the difficult task set before the National Assembly at Frankfort. The conflict of opinions caused the work to proceed slowly, but party strife did not reach its climax till the discussion on the central power. After much debate it was decided that the central power should be vested in the hands of a regent selected from one of the non-reigning houses, and that the popular archduke John of Austria should be appointed the supreme head.

The deputies who assembled in the Pauls-kirche had a difficult task. On the 4th of July began the deliberations on the "Fundamental Rights" of the German nation—deliberations which continued for a long period, and which were subjected to frequent and innumerable interruptions. Foreign policy was the topic which gave rise to the liveliest debates. The party of progress were anxious to form an offensive and defensive alliance with France, and "to stretch out the right hand of fellowship to their brothers over the Rhine"; but the majority rejected this proposal, though they did not fail to recognise France as a republic, and decided on sending the historian Friedrich of Raumer as ambassador to Paris.

Prussia and the National Assembly.—Since the Assembly in the Pauls-kirche had by a bold stroke organised the central power, a slight irritability on Prussia's part had been too evident. The command of the war-minister Pencker, that all German troops should do homage to the head of the empire, was not complied with in Prussia; everything which occurred at Frankfort was regarded with jealousy and suspicion at Berlin. But small consideration was given at Berlin to the formation of the German Constitution, as the establishment of its own Government was the first point aimed at, while at Frankfort the efforts for freedom made by the Prussian Assembly met with the greatest opposition. The irritability evinced by Prussia was still further



MEETING OF THE DIET IN THE WHITE HALL, IN THE PALACE AT BERLIN.

increased by the invidious tone adopted against her in Southern Germany, which occasionally gave rise to the fear that, instead of German unity, a greater division than ever would be the result.

The Truce of Malmö and the September Riots at Frankfort.—The ill-will existing between Frankfort and Berlin reached its climax on the news being declared that the Prussian Government, in concluding a peace with Denmark in the Schleswig-Holstein affair, had failed to carry out the promised conditions to the Duchies, which guaranteed their rights and upheld Germany's honour; that, on the contrary, the truce entered into at Malmö, August 26th, contained dishonouring and prejudicial conditions, by which the remission of certain laws and restrictions granted to Schleswig-Holstein, March 17th, were cancelled, and the existing Government replaced by one nominated by Prussia and Denmark conjointly. But the greatest affront of all was, that Count *Moltke*, Denmark's keen opponent, was to be appointed head of this self-same Government and of the united Duchies; when the discussion on this subject came before the National Assembly, *Dahlmann* proposed to ignore the truce by putting a stop to the return of the troops. The Assembly was divided in opinion; Dahlmann's proposal was carried by a small majority, but so many obstacles arose ere it could be carried out, that its fulfilment became impossible. Rumours, too, began to circulate that Count Moltke did not intend to accept the proffered dignity, and that Denmark was prepared to consent to some concessions, so that the situation gradually changed. The difficulty of carrying on the war successfully without the aid of Prussia, and the fear of playing into the hands of the Revolutionary party, went far to deter the moderate members from active hostility. After a debate of three days, the former resolution was thrown out, and the ratification of the truce was agreed upon, the necessary modifications and negotiations for peace being left in the hands of the Central Government. These tidings were received with sullenness by the populace, and proved a welcome pretext to the insurrectionists for renewing the fury of the March days. Riots began afresh, but were speedily suppressed by troops brought from Mayence.

The Legislative National Assembly at Berlin.—The National Assembly at the Pauls-kirche had absorbed Germany's most talented politicians, so that the other legislative Diets, which everywhere sprang into existence, bore traces of the intellectual exhaustion of the nation.

At the Berlin Assembly (June, 1848), summoned for the consideration of the Prussian Constitution, the meeting, instead of proceeding to the discussion of the scheme, excited angry passions by the proposal "that the Assembly, in recognition of the revolution, should declare that the combatants of the 18th and 19th of March had deserved well of the fatherland." While the turbulent popular masses in Berlin created general resentment by their violent proceedings, the National Assembly opposed every restriction on democratic liberty, and summoned from prison one of the fighters at the barricades, who had been elected to take part in their deliberations. When the news of the events in Vienna reached Berlin, Waldeck, the head of the party of the Left, proposed to "request the ministry to use every means to protect the endangered popular liberties at Vienna" (October, 1848). This proposition was further emphasized by threats and violence on the part of the people, till at last the king determined to obviate the recurrence of such proceedings, and summoned a more reactionary ministry.



GALICIAN INSURGENTS BURNING A NOBLEMAN'S HOUSE.

The Austrian Diet and Affairs at Vienna.

DURING the May of 1848, while the Emperor Ferdinand still tarried in Innsbruck, the elections for the Austrian constituent Assembly commenced, according to universal suffrage, and in July the chamber was opened. The Assembly offered the most remarkable appearance. Deputies of the most diverse tribes and classes, including thirty-two Galician peasants, in hair or linen smock-frocks, who were not able to read or write, and did not understand the German language, met together to draw up a universal constitution for the empire, of the condition of which but few had a clear conception. That such an undertaking must fail was in the nature of things, even had the conditions of the capital and the empire been less perplexing. With Italy at open war, Bohemia and Hungary in a state of rebellion, the frontier countries passionately excited, and financial distress prevailing, a work could hardly be accomplished which demanded tranquillity, order, and judgment.

During these deliberations the capital became the scene of incredible commotions, which afforded the radical speakers and demagogues a favourable opportunity for exciting the populace with inflammatory discourses and publications. The employment of hungry workmen on public works becoming an intolerable burden to the State, the minister, Schwarzer, lowered the wages to five kreuzers. This measure led to the bloody outbreak on the 23rd of August, which resulted in many imprisonments, and the suspension of the public works. Some weeks later a fresh tumult took place, but without effecting any practical result.

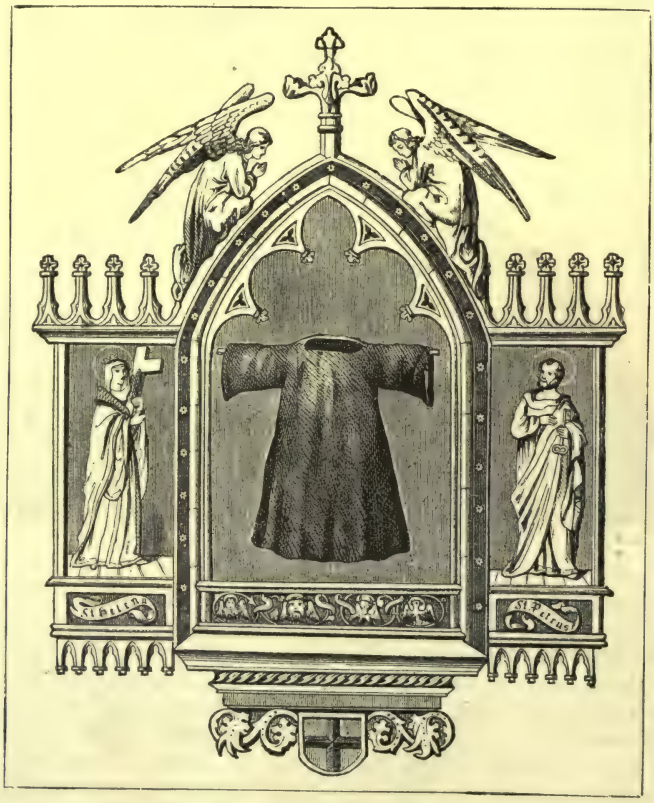
The October Days in Vienna.—The events in Hungary had thrown the capital of the Austrian empire into terrible commotion. For some time past Jellachich, the Ban of Croatia, secretly supported by the Court and the Government, had made war on the Magyars, and soon afterwards an Imperial manifesto declared war on Hungary (October, 1848). This gave occasion for an outbreak which surpassed all previous tumults in extent and violence. The town of Vienna was in uproar, the arsenals were attacked, and great depredations were perpetrated. This startling event made so great an impression on the emperor, that he once more took refuge in flight, and established his court in the Moravian town of Olmütz. All the ministry deserted their posts



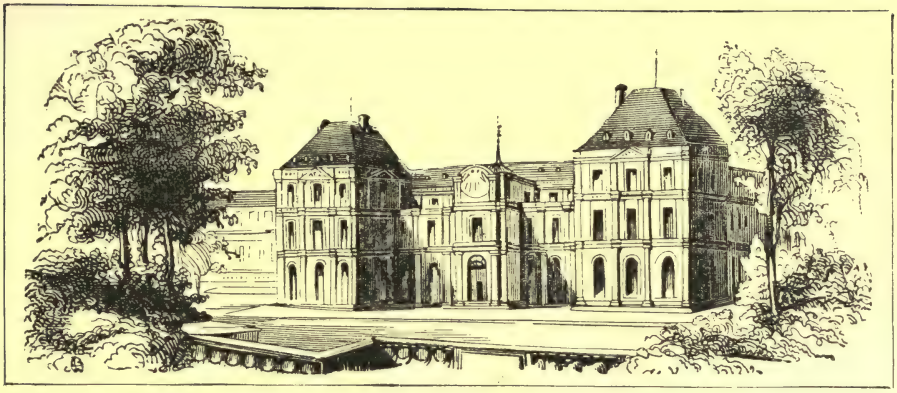
JELLACHICH.

with the exception of the minister Kraus, and an attempt was vainly made to maintain order. An address to the emperor sought to induce him to return; but the die was already cast. General von Auersperg took up a strong position with his troops, and at the same time the warlike Ban Jellachich approached the capital with a large army. These signs of an approaching attack, with combined forces, roused the population of the Imperial capital into feverish excitement. The refusal of the emperor to subordinate the authority of Jellachich to the Austrian ministry, was accepted by the democrats of Vienna as a proof that a military dictatorship was contemplated. The students' club then formed the centre of the revolutionary movement, and the armed forces were placed under the radical leaders of the National

Guard; but that which, above all, raised the courage and hopes of the insurgents was expected aid from the Magyars. Preparations were now made by the field-marshal, Prince Windisch-Grätz, for completely surrounding the city, and a proclamation declared Vienna in a state of siege. Both sides now exerted their warlike strength to the utmost. Bem, Messenhauser, and Fenneberg, conducted the preparations for defence. Two free corps were established, and the repressive measures which were taken outside against the Radicals were applied within against the moderate and the reactionary. Assaults and sallies, daily repeated, increased the thirst for vengeance on both sides, and for over a week the bloody conflict was carried on with the greatest bitterness day and night. On the 30th of October, 1848, the troops forced their way into the town, when shocking scenes of murder and violence were enacted, and many streets were burnt down. On the 2nd of November, Jellachich made his entry into the conquered city, and then commenced the iron rule of the sword. The town was strictly guarded, the inhabitants were disarmed, all the houses and streets were searched, and the prisons were filled with the guilty and suspected.



THE "HOLY COAT" OF TREVES.



POLITICAL CONDITION OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND, 1852-1869.

THE FRENCH EMPIRE OF 1852.—POLICY OF NAPOLEON III.—FRIENDSHIP WITH ENGLAND.—THE POWER OF AUSTRIA IN ITALY SHATTERED BY FRANCE.—DISTRUST AND INSECURITY IN GERMANY.—AUGMENTATION OF THE FRENCH ARMY.—ATTEMPT TO INTRODUCE CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT IN FRANCE.—EMILE OLLIVIER AND THE PLÉBISCITE.—ENGLAND.—RECOGNITION OF THE FRENCH EMPIRE.—FEELING OF APPREHENSION.—INCREASE OF THE FLEET AND ARMY.—JUDICIOUS POLICY OF LORD PALMERSTON TOWARDS FRANCE.—CO-OPERATION OF THE TWO POWERS AGAINST RUSSIA.—UNPOPULARITY OF ENGLAND IN CONSEQUENCE OF ENFORCEMENT OF NATIONAL RIGHTS.—INTERVENTION IN THE DANISH WAR.—COLONIAL AFFAIRS.—INSURRECTION IN JAMAICA.—GOVERNOR EYRE.—IRISH DISCONTENT.—THE FENIAN ORGANIZATION.—DISESTABLISHMENT OF THE IRISH CHURCH.—COERCIVE MEASURES.—THE WAR IN ABYSSINIA.—THE ALABAMA CLAIMS.

THE FRENCH EMPIRE AND ITS POLICY.



APOLEON III. was on his guard. Like his uncle, he also sought to protect himself by a far-reaching, watchful policy, and placed his confidence in his efficient army, his proud guard, his generals and officers. The most brilliant triumphs of Napoleon, however, were obtained in the field of foreign policy. In close alliance with England, he came forward as the protector of Turkey against the encroaching and tyrannical power of Russia ; and although the two years' war on the Lower Danube and in the Crimea did not aggrandize the French empire, it had the effect of placing France in a more important position among the nations of Europe. Still more important in its consequences for France and for the whole of Europe was Napoleon's mediation in the affairs of Italy (September, 1857). In this case also he obtained the good-

will and co-operation of England, which, though not an armed ally, favcured and confirmed his policy. At the same time the Emperor contrived craftily to avail himself of the ill-feeling that had been engendered against Austria in Russia by the Crimean War, and to utilise the rivalry of Prussia towards the Austrian government, by placing Austria in an isolated position. By this sagacious, though perhaps somewhat Machiavellian policy, which was assisted by the victories of the French arms and the shortcomings of the Austrian war department, Napoleon succeeded in shattering the power of Austria in Italy, and won by force of arms for his ally, Victor Emmanuel, the splendid province



THE SULTAN ABD-UL MEDJID.

of Lombardy, which acquisition was but the beginning of further increase of the king's territory in Central Italy; and after the King of Sardinia had been recognised as King of Italy by most of the states of Europe, Napoleon III. not only accomplished the annexation of Savoy and Nice to the empire of France, but also assumed the former functions of Austria, as protector of the new kingdom, in place of the humbled South German power; while at the same time, by maintaining a number of troops in garrison at Rome, he held in his hand the destinies of the papal power. In the seas of Eastern Asia also the French fleet made common cause with the English, participating in the British war against the Flowery Land, so that Great Britain was not the only gainer by commercial intercourse with China; and the intervention of the

French arms, in the attempt to establish a system of imperial sway in Mexico was at first undertaken after diplomatic consultation with Spain and England, though both the design and the enterprise are due to the fertile brain and the restless energy of the French emperor. In spite of Napoleon's oft-reiterated representations that his government was an "era of peace," foreign countries placed little confidence in his word, and suspicion that he intended to build up his popularity on conquest increased continually, especially after the annexation of Savoy and Nice. In Switzerland an excitement prevailed, which for some time reached a threatening height, and in Belgium, Holland, and Germany considerable apprehension was caused by the revival of imperialistic ideas with regard to "natural boundaries"; while in England the old volunteer movement of the commencement of the century was very energetically and completely revived. A great review of volunteers was held by the Queen in Hyde Park, and the movement flourished, and the number of volunteer riflemen rapidly increased.

Germany and the French Empire, Distrust and Insecurity.



FREDERICK WILLIAM IV.

BUT the greatest cause for anxiety was felt in Germany; and in June, 1860, many German princes met at Baden-Baden, to strengthen the Crown Prince of Prussia in the determination of forming a general union for the defence of the integrity of the fatherland. The great zeal with which the reorganization of the army was undertaken in 1867 was a sufficient sign that the expression, "The empire is peace," was not taken in a literal sense by the French government itself. By means of its well-equipped and imposing military forces, under the command of Marshal Niel, France adopted the attitude of a power, which, like Rome in the presence of Carthage, "in the folds of its toga bears war or peace." But after Napoleon III. had, by this military organization, placed the empire in a position to maintain its rightful precedence abroad and to repress all outbreaks and outpourings of hostile elements at home, he turned his attention to more liberal measures, granting freedom of the press and restoring the right of public meeting. But although the attention of the French nation was much taken up with its internal affairs, it was everywhere apparent with what jealousy France regarded every movement and action which emanated from Prussia and the North German league. When in the spring of 1869 the third legislative year came to an end, and the new elections of members of the legislative bodytook place, the French people fell into a feverish state of excitement

and expectation. It was felt that a new era was commencing, and the Emperor allowed himself to be persuaded into holding a protracted and important conference with the Liberal deputy Ollivier with regard to the sentiments and wishes of the people. The result of the elections for members of the legislature in the larger towns, and especially in Paris, where the "irreconcilable" democrats and republicans continued to carry off the victory over the men of moderate and reasonable constitutional opinions, startled and alarmed the Emperor, and with good reason. When the new deputies met in July to verify the elections, and a hundred and sixteen of them demanded the responsibility of the ministers, and independence, and free parliamentary action, with the right of the initiative for the legislative body, he gave an acquiescent reply, and adjourned the sittings until the senate should deliberate and report on the proposed concessions. It is true that this unexpected and somewhat informal adjournment excited some dissatisfaction; but the Emperor's dismissal of the state minister, Rouher, the skilful champion of imperial absolutism, proved that Napoleon III. was in earnest with regard to reforms. After a few disturbed weeks, during which the death of Marshal Niel brought about fresh changes in the cabinet, Napoleon on the appointed day, the 29th of November, 1869, opened the legislative chamber with an address from the throne, in which he declared that "France desired peace with order," and then summoned Emile Ollivier as his minister, and entrusted to him the task of organizing, instead of the former personal rule, a system of parliamentary and constitutional government. Ultimately, however, the Emperor decided on making a general appeal to the nation, by means of a plébiscite, to obtain a popular sanction for the re-organization of the constitution. Accordingly every French elector received an imperial circular letter, containing the questions: "Does the French nation approve of the liberal reforms which the Emperor, in conjunction with the legislature, has effected in the constitution since 1860? And does the country accept the *senatus consultum* of the 20th of April, 1870?" After a great electioneering excitement and considerable tumult, during which the official organs of the government manifested a burning zeal for obtaining replies in the affirmative, that thus liberty and peace might be secured for the future, the result was that on the 8th of May, 1870, upwards of seven and a half million voters declared in favour of the imperial government, which thus obtained a brilliant vote of confidence. On the other hand, the fact that in several of the larger towns the opposition was in the majority, and that in the army over 45,000, and in the navy 6,000, "noes" were registered, certainly damped the feeling of exhilaration on the victory, but did not avail to lessen the importance of the *plébiscite* with regard to the maintenance of the existing order of things.

ENGLAND.

THE English Government, though it immediately recognised the new empire in France, could not contemplate this sudden and unexpected restoration of the Bonapartist dynasty and the consequent revival of Bonapartist traditions, without a certain degree of natural anxiety. The fleet was therefore strengthened, the harbours and fortifications were placed in a state of defence, and the number of the land forces of Britain was increased. Everywhere on the Continent there prevailed a certain feeling of jealousy and suspicion towards England, quite unwarranted by the attitude of that country, but simply owing to the fact that political fugitives and exiles always found a

secure refuge and a hospitable welcome in the British dominions; and, protected by their right of asylum, they frequently rendered assistance to the revolutionary party in the Continental states, and sought to overthrow the despotic governments. But by a judicious policy of wisdom and moderation the government succeeded in lulling foreign suspicions to rest; and as the oriental complication between Russia and Turkey attracted the attention of Europe to other things, and England's co-operation in opposing Russia's ambition and love of conquest became more and more necessary, the good understanding between the British Islands and the Continental Powers was soon restored, and the governments of France and England entered into a close alliance, which



ENGLISH LINE OF BATTLE SHIPS IN THE YEAR 1854.

was further strengthened by frequent personal meetings between the rulers and the chief ministers of the two Powers. The English had every reason for maintaining amicable and even cordial relations with France, as they had provoked violent hostility against themselves in many quarters by a firm adherence, during a period of reaction, to the principles of constitutional liberty. The steady and unflinching firmness with which the English government had asserted, through the energetic action of the foreign minister, Lord Palmerston, first in Greece and then in the distracted kingdom of Naples, the rights, privileges, and indemnities of English subjects, produced great displeasure in those ill-governed countries. The kingdom of Greece was, not unnaturally, the subject of suspicion and distrust to the English Government so long as the reign of

King Otho lasted; for that weak monarch was accused of greater preference for Russia and France, and the discontented, excited temper of the people was fostered against the Bavarian prince who ruled in Athens as king. When the Ionian Republic of the Seven Islands demanded their independence at the opening of the Parliament in Corfu, and pressed for a union with Greece, the English Government at first refused the petition, and prorogued the assembly; but when, after the expulsion from Greece of the inefficient King Otho, a Danish prince, the brother of the Princess of Wales, ascended the throne of Athens as King George I., in 1863, England consented to the union of the Ionian Islands with the kingdom of Greece. The action of the English Government in the Germano-Danish dispute with regard to the duchies of Schleswig Holstein, by first attempting to influence the Germans by energetic remonstrances, and ultimately, when the allied troops invested Holstein and the Prussian-Austrian army conquered Schleswig, leaving the Danes in the



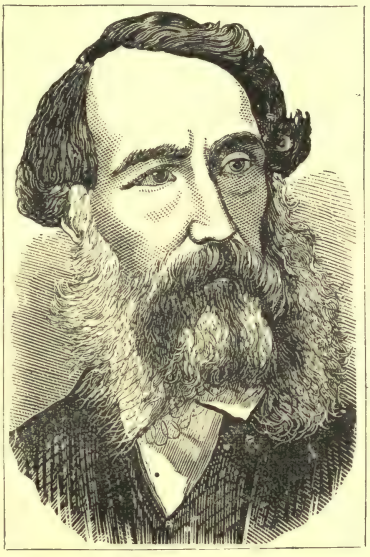
COPENHAGEN.

lurch to fight their own battle, and disappointing them in their somewhat over-sanguine hopes of an armed intervention of Great Britain in their favour, made a painful impression both on friends and enemies. Yet while both these and other quarrels were arranged, or set aside after a few angry words, in the East Indies the chronic misrule and injustice of the East India Company, shown in the frequent evasion or faulty fulfilment of treaties on the part of English officials and military persons, produced a national war, which shook the Anglo-Indian empire to its foundations and resulted in much inhuman violence. Nevertheless, the insurrection served to restore the supremacy of England, and to strengthen its power.

Colonial Affairs and Ireland.

A FEW years later, in 1865, the English nation was startled by the intelligence of a conspiracy among the negroes in the island of Jamaica; but by the swift and energetic intervention of Governor Eyre the insurrection was

soon repressed, and the former independent administration was replaced by a new and more stringent form of government. Subsequently, such cruelties and such inhuman practices in the way of barbarous punishments were brought to light, that public opinion demanded an investigation, and the government was compelled to suspend Governor Eyre, and put him on his trial. The conscientious fidelity with which Queen Victoria recognised the necessity that the Parliament of England should take a free course in this and in similar matters tended to unite the government and people of England in the bonds of confidence and affection. In Ireland, on the other hand, where former misrule and injustice continued to bear such bitter fruits as to render the island a thorn in the side of England, national antipathies were once more excited, when the Fenian organization, which originated in America, enrolled the discontented spirits among the most ignorant of the population of the "green isle" into a secret league by means of delegates, who came with the object of establishing an Irish republic, and exciting to rebellion against the English, till at last the government found itself compelled to proceed to summary imprisonment of suspected characters and to the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act in some parts of Ireland. These and other events induced the Liberal party on their accession to office, with Gladstone as their leader, to endeavour, by means of the disestablishment of the branch of the English state Church established in Ireland, to do away with the unjust levying of tithes for the Anglican clergy, and to introduce a reform of the land laws. The death, on the 18th of October, 1865, of the great statesman Palmerston, whose skilful hand had so often guided the ship of the state through storms and dangers, and who, by the friendly relations he persistently maintained with Napoleon III., was especially adapted to maintain the alliance between the two states, was a great misfortune for the English nation. A conspicuous warlike triumph was obtained by the English in the speedy termination of a campaign in Abyssinia, one of those "little wars" that cost so much and often are causes of prolonged difficulties. When the tyrannical King Theodore, who had risen from a lowly position to be the ruler of the beautiful Alpine country of Abyssinia, and aspired to found a great Ethiopian kingdom, threw some missionaries and other English subjects into prison, and obstinately refused all intervention of the English Government and every offer of compromise, an armed expedition under Sir Robert Napier was despatched to the Red Sea, and after a short war procured full recognition of the national honour and European international law. At the storming of the fortress of Magdala, in April, 1868, King Theodore met his death, or, according to one report, committed suicide. His son was placed under English protection and supervision, and the prisoners held in bondage by the ruthless despot were set at liberty.



GOVERNOR EYRE.



TURKEY AND THE CRIMEAN WAR.

RUSSIA AND TURKEY.—ATTITUDE OF SUPREMACY OF THE CZAR.—DESIGNS OF THE CZAR NICHOLAS.—ATTEMPT TO CONCILIATE ENGLAND.—OPPOSITION OF ENGLAND TO THE EMPEROR'S DESIGNS.—THE PORTE IN DANGER AND DIFFICULTY.—ALLIANCE OF ENGLAND AND FRANCE.—OUTBREAK OF THE RUSSO-TURKISH WAR.—INTERVENTION OF THE WESTERN POWERS.—DECLARATION OF HOSTILITIES.—THE WAR ON THE DANUBE, AND THE EXPEDITION TO THE BALTIC.—THE CRIMEA.—ALMA, BALAKLAVA, AND INKERMANN.—THE WINTER CAMPAIGN BEFORE SEBASTOPOL.—SARDINIA JOINS THE ALLIES.—DEATH OF THE EMPEROR NICHOLAS AND ACCESSION OF ALEXANDER II.—CAPTURE OF SEBASTOPOL AND CONCLUSION OF THE WAR.—PEACE CONGRESS IN PARIS, IN 1856.—CONDITIONS OF THE TREATY.—RUSSIA AND POLAND UNDER ALEXANDER II.—REFORMS AND CHANGES IN THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

THE ATTITUDE OF RUSSIA, AND THE CHRISTIANS IN TURKEY.



THE revolution in its course through Europe had not touched the frontiers of the Russian empire, or in any way modified that mighty despotism. Even the Poles, always eager to seize every opportunity for their liberation, had bowed in mute and despairing submission before the supreme ruler at St. Petersburg. Austria had appealed to him for assistance in Hungary; Prussia was always the faithful ally of the Czar, and the German princes regarded him as the powerful protector of monarchical government. This state of affairs accounted for the fact that Nicholas, "the ruler of all the Russias," contemplated repeating the bold attempts of conquest of Catharine II., by establishing a Russian hegemony and union of races in the south of his empire, by placing the principalities on the Danube

in a close and dependent relationship, and by limiting the dominion of the Osmanli to Asia. The Turkish empire was in a distracted condition; the Czar had no opposition to fear from the newly established French empire, which was struggling to maintain itself; and England was the only great power which stood in the way of his long cherished projects. He therefore endeavoured to conciliate the English Government by offering the supremacy over Egypt and Candia as the price of England's acquiescence in his designs. But the astute English people were not to be deceived by the alluring prospect. The maintenance of Turkey appeared a necessary condition of the balance of power in Europe, and with the possession of Constantinople, the trade of the Levant would fall exclusively into the hands of the Russians; and an increase of power such as Russia would obtain through the conquest of the Danubian countries would endanger the safety and independence of all the other states. Prussia, however, still remained the ally of the Czar, who was further filled with confidence on account of the dissensions between the Mohammedan and Christian populations in Turkey, and the devotion of the adherents of the Greek Church, who venerated him as their protector. Though the Turkish government was not itself guilty of oppressing its Christian subjects, yet it was not able to restrain the fanaticism of the Mohammedans in the distant provinces, and the Christians were frequently ill-treated, robbed, and massacred.

The Porte in Danger and Difficulties.

IT was no secret to penetrating observers that the attempted protectorate of Russia over Eastern Christendom was only the veil of political schemes of greater magnitude; and the great European powers, with the exception of Prussia, therefore decided to oppose Russia's scheme and to maintain Turkey in its integrity. It was a strange sight, that the three great Christian Powers should unite to keep the Christian populations, whose liberation was the pretended aim of the Russian despot, under the yoke of the rude Mohammedans; and to behold the same Osmanli empire, against which for two hundred years the whole of Western Christendom had taken arms, now protected with affectionate solicitude. A deep-lying motive on the part of England consisted in the apprehension of being cut off from the Black Sea, and injured in its Eastern trade by Russia's supremacy. The Emperor of France, on the other hand, who could not inaugurate his reign more gloriously than by a war of revenge against that Russia to whom his uncle with his mighty army had once succumbed, declared himself the protector of the Roman Catholic Christians, and demanded for them equal rights and equal protection; and Austria, with instinctive slyness, offered every opposition to the schemes of the powerful ruler by inducing the Porte to speedy compliance in the dispute of the Montenegrins with Turkey, so that the northern despot should be cut off from any opportunity of mediation. The Emperor Nicholas regarded this triumph of Austria with angry vexation, and his chagrin was still further increased when the French ambassador, the Marquis of Lavalette, demanded of the intimidated Porte equal privileges and protection for the Roman Catholic Christians in the holy pilgrimages in the East. The Czar then despatched his admiral, Prince Menzikoff, as extraordinary ambassador to Constantinople to demand the protectorate over all the Greek Christians. The demand was however refused; Menzikoff withdrew, and three weeks later the French and English fleets of war anchored at the entrance of the Dardanelles to watch the further course of affairs.

Outbreak of the Russo-Turkish War.



OMER PASHA.

THE Emperor Nicholas met the threatening attitude of the French-English fleet by issuing a command to Prince Michael Gortschakoff to cross the Pruth with two divisions of the army, and to take possession of the Danubian principalities. Under these conditions war was inevitable, in spite of the efforts made at mediation between the powers. In England the press loudly raised its voice against a faint-hearted policy, and Layard, the discoverer of the entombed royal fortresses in the ancient capital of Nineveh, spoke strongly in Parliament in favour of Turkey. The feeling of the old Turkish party in Constantinople was still more vehement, and at last, on the 4th of October, 1853, the Sultan declared war against Russia if the Danubian principalities were not immediately evacuated.

Intervention of the Western Powers.—Though the Russian armies, even after the declaration of war, had quickly marched into the Balkan territory, a decisive blow could easily have been struck, before the Western Powers could have rendered Turkey armed support; but Nicholas had given his assurance to the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia not to be the first to cross the Danube. On the other hand, France and England entered into an alliance with the Porte, and despatched their united fleets to the Bosphorus (November 27th). Soon afterwards, Admiral Nachimoff, one cloudy November day, surprised a Turkish squadron which Osman Pasha, the Turkish commander, had concealed in the harbour of Sinope. The superior force of the Russians proved victorious; nearly all the ships were destroyed, and the crews, except a few hundred men, were slain. But the heroic courage and contempt of death which the Turks displayed in the bloody battle excited general admiration, and proved that the warlike spirit was not yet extinguished in the Turkish ranks. This blow, inflicted almost within sight of the Franco-English navy, had a decisive result. The English nation in particular felt itself deeply aggrieved at the result. Lord Aberdeen, who had shown himself to be too compliant, was made the object of violent attack, and Lord Palmerston again took office. This was speedily followed by a declaration of war on the part of France and England in March, 1854. Austria maintained a passive attitude, while Prussia also hesitated to enter into alliance with Russia, and remained neutral. The Russian ruler was, however, far from humbling his haughty temper. His hopes depended mainly on a general rising of the Christians in the Danubian countries and in Greece. He therefore laid stress in all his speeches and proclamations upon the religious motive. But this hope was not destined to be fulfilled. The Servians, Bulgarians, and Bosnians remained passive, and in Greece alone were the machinations of Russian partisans successful in exciting some rebellions. The Greek Government was urged to take part in the war, and volunteers flocked from all sides towards the northern frontier. When, however, King Otho, partly from fear of the Western Powers, ventured to resist the pressure put upon him by the friends

of Russia, the undisciplined army of freebooters and their quarrelsome leaders were easily scattered. By this policy Otho lost the last remnant of his people's love and sympathy. He appeared to the excitable Hellenes not to be the man to assert the "great idea"; and his subsequent expulsion was brought about without any great conflict.



ENGLISH GUARDS.

The War on the Danube, and the Expedition to the Baltic.

HITHERTO the progress of the war had not corresponded with the boasting utterances of the Russians and their allies. The Russian armies had not only been repulsed before Kalafat, but had also been surprised and defeated near Citate. Consequently great military preparations were undertaken throughout the whole empire, and the old Prince Paskewitch, the most famous general of the time, was installed as commander-in-chief. At the same time the seat of war was shifted farther to the east, partly to relieve the Austrians from apprehension, and partly in the hope that the Christian Slavs would be sooner encouraged to join in the rear of the army. In the middle of March Paskewitch marched his army across the Danube, while General

Lüders took possession of the Dobrudscha without important opposition on the part of the Turks, and then united his forces with the division commanded by General Schilder. This menacing proceeding roused the Western Powers to greater activity, and in April an English army of 20,000 men sailed under the skilful commander Lord Raglan towards the East, landed near Gallipoli on the



THE RUSSIAN IMPERIAL GUARD.

Dardanelles, and proved by the siege of Odessa the seriousness of their intentions. Austria and Prussia also felt themselves aggrieved by the action of Russia, and entered into an alliance, in case the Russians should cross the Balkans, or should appropriate the Danubian principalities. On the 10th of June, the German Powers despatched a note to St. Petersburg in which the evacuation of the principalities was demanded, and Austria was empowered by the Porte to invest the land. The attitude of Austria, as well as the landing of some of the allies' troops near Varna, decided the commander-in-chief, Paskewitch, to withdraw with his weakened army across the Danube, and then across the Pruth. A year and a half later he died at Warsaw, on the 1st of February, 1856. On the other hand a hasty attempt of the French to march

from Varna towards the Dobrudscha resulted in the loss of many of their soldiers, and the town of Varna was reduced to ashes. In the meantime an English fleet sailed under Admiral Sir Charles Napier to the Baltic, with the intention of inducing Sweden to become an ally, conquering the island-fortress of Cronstadt, and subjecting St. Petersburg itself to the horrors of a siege. But the attempt failed ; the walls of Cronstadt resisted all attack, and besides the conquest of the small fortress of Bomarsund this naval war resulted in no other trophies than a few captured trading vessels.



BALAKLAVA HARBOUR.

Alma and Inkermann.

AT Varna a council of war was held, and after many deliberations it was decided that an attack should be made on Sebastopol in the Crimea; and Lord Raglan, who desired above all things the destruction of the Russian naval power in the Black Sea, gave his consent. Of the allied armies 15,000 men had already perished, and with the remaining forces, rather more than 50,000 men, with 6,000 Turks, the fleet set sail in September across the Black Sea, and landed near Eupatoria on the west coast of the peninsula, on the 4th of September, 1854. Southwards of Eupatoria the sea forms a bay, into which, near the ruins of the old town of Inkermann, the little river Tschernaja pours itself. On the southern side lies the fortified town of Sebastopol; on the northern side strong fortifications were raised for the defence of the fleet of war which lay at anchor in the bay. Farther north the western moun-

tain range is intersected by the river Alma, over which Prince Menzikoff, governor of the Crimea, garrisoned the heights with an army of 30,000 men. Against the latter the allies first directed their attack (20th of September), and, in spite of the strong position of the Russians on the rocky slopes, Menzikoff was compelled to retreat, and only owed his escape from entire destruction to the want of cavalry in the army of the allies. This dearly bought and bloody battle on the Alma gave rise to hopes of a speedy termination of the campaign; but when the allies, weakened and wearied by the fearful struggle, delayed any further attack, Menzikoff gained time to strengthen his garrison, and to surround the town on all sides with strong fortifications. When the allies approached the town they were soon convinced that any attack on such formidable strongholds would be fruitless, and that they must await the arrival of fresh reinforcements and ammunition. The English took up their position on the Bay of Balaklava, and the French to the west, on the Kamiesch. There now commenced a siege, such as has seldom occurred in the history of the world. The first attempt to storm by a united attack of the land army and the fleet showed the resistance to be much more formidable than had been expected by the allies. Eight days later the English were surprised in their strong position near Balaklava by General Liprandi. The battle of Balaklava was decided in favour of the allies, but in the heroic "charge of the Light Brigade" they suffered considerable loss. On the 5th of November, when Menzikoff had obtained fresh reinforcements, the murderous battle of Inkermann was fought under the eyes of the two Grand Princes Nicholas and Michael, and after a mighty struggle was decided in favour of the allies. Fighting in the ranks were two other princely personages, the Duke of Cambridge and Prince Napoleon, son of Jerome, former King of Westphalia.

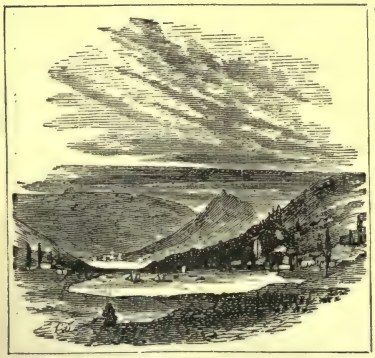


INKERMANN.



FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE.

THE WINTER CAMPAIGN BEFORE SEBASTOPOL.



THE bloody battle of Inkermann only increased the suffering and desolation, but brought no change in the state of affairs. Since the Russian campaign of the year 1812 no army had suffered such misery and privations as the soldiers in the Crimea during the winter of 1854–1855. Compassionate Sisters of Mercy and English ladies—above all, Miss Florence Nightingale—endeavoured with noble self-sacrifice to assuage the sufferings which cold, hunger, and disease brought upon the unhappy soldiers. The insignificant result of the operations before Sebastopol encouraged the Russian emperor to obstinate resistance. He rejected the four points

which were presented to him as the fresh conditions of peace, although both Austria and Prussia gave them their support. Austria subsequently joined issue with the Western Powers, and commenced preparations for war. A few weeks later Sardinia also joined the league with France and England, and despatched General La Marmora with an army of 15,000 men to the Crimea. By this course King Victor Emmanuel obtained the favour of both the Western Powers. Prussia and the German states, on the other hand, continued their neutrality.



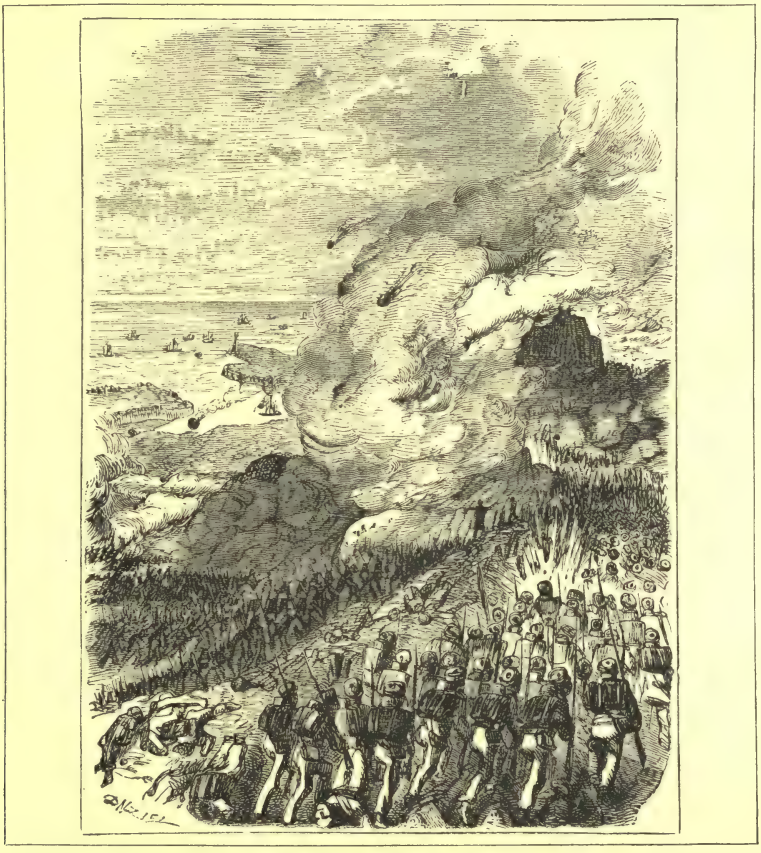
VISCOUNT PALMERSTON.

In the new year important events took place, which soon gave an altered aspect to affairs. In England loud indignation was expressed both in parliament and the press at the bad state of the army and war administration, which led to the resignation of Lord Aberdeen and the accession to office of Lord Palmerston. The war was now prosecuted with greater energy, and on the 10th of February, 1855, an attack made by General Ehrnlef on Eupatoria was deprived of its effect by the strength of the resistance and the bravery of the Turkish garrison under Omer Pasha. The news of this disaster had such a powerful effect on the proud and obstinate temper of the emperor, who had been ailing for some time, that he died suddenly on the 2nd of March. His son, Alexander II., a humane prince, of milder temper and more peaceful disposition, was his successor.

Capture of Sebastopol and End of the War.

IN spite of the desire for peace in Russia, where 25,000 men had been sacrificed, yet the honour of the nation and respect for the dead emperor demanded a continuation of the conflict. The military forces on both sides were considerably strengthened. Including the Turks, the army of the allies amounted to 175,000 men, that of the Russians to 150,000, and both were excellently provided with war ammunition. The Vienna cabinet, in which Gortschakoff developed his diplomatic skill, had again adopted an expectant attitude, and dismissed a portion of its troops; by which means Russia was placed in a position to despatch the forces sent against Austria to the Crimea, where Prince Gortschakoff, a brother of the diplomatist, had been appointed commander-in-chief in place of Menzikoff. In the French army General Canrobert yielded the chief command to General Pelissier, and the siege was now prosecuted more vigorously than ever. From the 17th of August the attacks were continued almost without intermission, so that the Russians could not gain time to repair the destroyed works, and the incessant rain of balls sensibly diminished the number of the besieged in the streets and unprotected parts. After a terrible bombardment, commencing on the 5th of September,

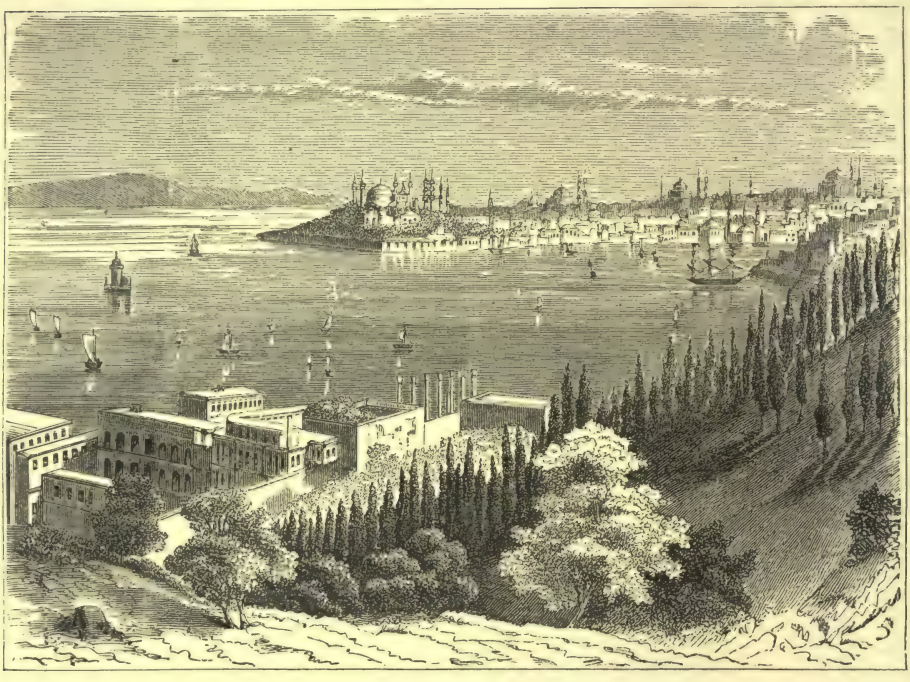
and continuing day and night, had wrought fearful destruction, and swept down upwards of 5,000 Russians on the ramparts, the main attack was commenced on the 8th of September, as the clock struck twelve. During the night Gortschakoff caused all the fortifications in the southern town which were still in the hands of the Russians to be blown up, and the remaining ships of the fleet of war to be sunk in the harbour. This brought to an end the memorable siege of Sebastopol. It had caused great sacrifices in men and money to all parties engaged; there was consequently a general wish for the arrangement of a favourable peace. Russia was not so much weakened by the



ATTACK ON SEBASTOPOL.

loss of the fortress as had been expected, and her desire of compensating for the defeat of Sebastopol by a new victory in the battlefield was soon carried into effect. The Turkish fortress of Kars, south-east of Trebisonde, which was besieged by General Mouraview, was at last compelled by hunger to surrender. Russia could now conclude peace honourably. At the Peace Congress in Paris, which was opened on the 25th of February, 1856, an agreement was arrived at by which the integrity of the Osmanli empire was secured. Russia had to consent to a small cession of territory; the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia as well as Servia were to be placed under the protection of the Powers, besides the suzerainty of the Sultan; equality between the

Christians and Mohammedans was established; and by the neutralization of the Black Sea and the exclusion of all ships of war from its harbours, an end was made of the preponderance of the Russian naval power in Pontine waters. At this time Napoleon stood at the height of his power. On all sides the genius of the Emperor was greeted with homage, and his minister Walewski, a natural son of the first Napoleon, conducted the congress.



CONSTANTINOPLE.

Russia and Poland under Alexander II. Reforms in Russia.

THE disasters in the Crimea, and especially the defeat at Eupatoria, had given the Emperor Nicholas his death-blow. His son and successor, Alexander II., did not follow in his father's footsteps. Though the honour of the Russian arms demanded that the war should be carried through to the end, the new emperor soon showed after the conclusion of the peace that he was animated by a different spirit. At the brilliant coronation ceremony at Moscow, on the 7th of September, 1856, he already testified by a number of gracious acts that mildness and leniency would no longer be disregarded by the ruler of St. Petersburg. He next directed his attention towards alleviating the disasters caused by the devastating war. A considerable reduction of the army lessened taxation, and released many hands for labour; the prohibitive system, with its demoralising accompaniment of smuggling, was exchanged for the milder form of protective tolls, and by treaties with native and foreign bank houses the construction of great railways was facilitated, which promoted commerce and the transport of wares abroad and to distant provinces. In other departments also did Alexander show that he

was moved by a more liberal spirit than his father. The severity with which Nicholas had fettered the intellectual life of his people, and had done violence to their religious consciousness, the relentlessness which he had shown to the believers in all doctrines differing from the Greek confession, was entirely opposed to the principles and character of Alexander II.; and though the new ruler could not abolish all restraints, yet he endeavoured, both in the domain of religion and of thought, to make way for freer conceptions of life and greater liberal development. He also endeavoured by improvement of education, reform in the administration of justice, and the establishment of provincial assemblies, to raise all the different classes of the population to greater political activity and independence. His most important reform however was the abolition of serfdom and the establishment of a free peasantry with right of property, a measure which was destined to bring about a complete transformation in all the social, financial, and economical conditions of the state.



EXILES TAKEN TO SIBERIA.



POLISH PEASANT INSURGENTS.

Condition and Position of Parties in Poland.



ALEXANDER II., EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.

THE Emperor Alexander II. extended the reforming activity which he had commenced in Russia, to Poland also, where in place of the old Prince Paskewitch, who died shortly before the conclusion of the Peace of Paris, Prince Michael Gortschakoff, the defender of Sebastopol, was appointed governor in February, 1856. Not only were most of the Polish refugees permitted to return to their homes by the promulgation of an amnesty, but in the following year, 1857, a new administration of the law was introduced, modelled on the Russian system. Warsaw also, like St. Petersburg, was included in the great railway system, by means of which every portion of the kingdom was brought into communication with the rest of Europe. At the same time the statutes of an agricultural society were guaranteed to Warsaw, so that agriculture should not remain behind other industries in the Polish province.



THE FIRST GERMAN PARLIAMENT.

AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA.

THE AUSTRIAN QUESTION IN THE PARLIAMENT.—THE VARIOUS PARTIES.—THE CONSTITUTION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.—ANTAGONISM BETWEEN AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA.—COMPLETION OF THE CONSTITUTION.—URGENT NECESSITY FOR REFORMS.—SECOND NATIONAL ASSEMBLY IN BERLIN.—OFFER OF THE IMPERIAL CROWN TO PRUSSIA.—REFUSAL OF THE OFFER BY FREDERICK WILLIAM IV.—LATER DAYS OF THE FRANKFORT ASSEMBLY.—THE SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN QUESTION.—REVOLT OF SAXONY.—INSURRECTION IN DRESDEN.—END OF THE FRANKFORT ASSEMBLY.—THE RUMP PARLIAMENT.—RETIREMENT OF GAGERN AND HIS FOLLOWERS.—TRIUMPH OF THE DEMOCRATIC LEFT.—TRANSFER OF THE PARLIAMENT TO STUTTGART.—ACTION OF THE MINISTER RÖMER.—HUMILIATING CONCLUSION OF THE ASSEMBLY'S SITTINGS.

THE FRANKFORT ASSEMBLY AND THE AUSTRIAN QUESTION.



EPORTS of the Vienna October rising reached the Frankfort Parliament during the deliberation on the constitution of the empire, and brought the question of the future position of Austria into the foreground. Three suggestions were made: (i.) That Austria should dissolve itself into its national elements, so that the German-Austrian territory would fall to the German empire, and take part in the constitution of the whole; (ii.) That Austria should remain entire, and then the German portion of Austria would have to withdraw

itself from the German State; and (iii.) The German State and the Austrian monarchy should be allied in one great central European empire. Besides these three main points, several other propositions of mediation were made, which either allowed the mutual relationship to remain for some time longer, or endeavoured to establish an exceptional position for Austria in the way of reconciliation, with certain "modifications." Against this severance of the German country from Austria was opposed the fear that the districts which were not German would become more estranged from Germany, and would fall under the influence of Russia; while the conception of a natural State order, and the sense of the impossibility of a sound political organism,



MEETING PLACE OF THE NATIONAL PARLIAMENT IN FRANKFORT.

was antagonistic to the amalgamation of the whole of Austria; consequently, the scheme of a peaceful separation appeared the only feasible one, and to this theory Heinrich von Gagern gave a more decided form and a milder expression.

This astute party-leader and chief, starting with the proposition that the German element in Austria was the most influential, and that it was as much opposed to the national interest of Germany as it was a downright impossibility for Austria to loosen the State unity between the German and non-German provinces of the Austrian monarchy, ever sought to obtain the basis for a relationship, by which Austrian-Germany should remain closely bound together, but that between Austria and the rest of Germany a still

closer alliance should exist. Further discussions were, however, postponed, that the central Government might gain time to negotiate with Austria ; but the conferences with the Frankfort minister, Schmerling, were protracted, and led to little result. Nevertheless, the organization of the German constitution could not be completed so long as the relationship of Austria remained undecided, because on the alliance or exclusion of this great power everything depended.

The question of the position of Austria became a crucial point between the two great parties in the Parliament at Frankfort. On the one hand, those who wished to see Germany welded into a strong unity of states, with constitutional liberty for the citizens and a strong executive power, were anxious to destroy the preponderating influence of Austria, and claimed for Prussia the leading position, or "Hegemony," in the new State, declaring that to make the ruler of Prussia the head of Germany would most profitably increase the power and influence of the whole. Naturally enough this system aroused violent opposition, not only from the Austrian representatives, but from the deputies representing Bavaria and the majority of the states of South Germany, who were angry at this proposed glorification of Prussia, whose military style of government, harsh and peremptory manners, and form of religion, were alike distasteful to them. Thus arose the two parties, one of which called itself, in reference to the universality of its aims and aspirations, the Great German (*Grossdeutsche*) Party ; while the rival faction was somewhat satirically designated the "Small German" (*Kleindeutsche*). In the Great German faction, however, there were dangerous diversities of opinion on the most important questions. The members violently opposed Gagern's plans ; there were among them elements of discord, though they took as their motto the line from Arndt's patriotic song, "Das ganze Deutschland soll es sein" : "It shall be the whole of Germany."

In his ministerial programme, issued on the 18th of December, 1848, Gagern frankly put forward the Austrian question as the vital point, the measure on which everything depended. His opponents declared that the position in which he designed to place Austria would involve a "partition" of Germany, no less disgraceful than that partition of Poland which history had stigmatized as a great crime. Gagern himself acknowledged the necessity of modifying the strictness of his ministerial programme ; and by his proposition of the 5th of January, 1849, proposed clauses intended to conciliate Austria ; but the deputy Beckerath declared that "waiting for Austria would be the death of German unity," and the history of the German people throughout many troublous years seemed to establish the principle that a healthy, energetic, and enduring national life could only be obtained for Germany on the condition that the country emancipated itself from Austria. The Gagern ministry might seek to evade the reproach of having fostered disunion, yet its plan for the establishment of a great German empire was based on the idea of sacrificing the limb that had a disease, to insure the safety of the whole body.

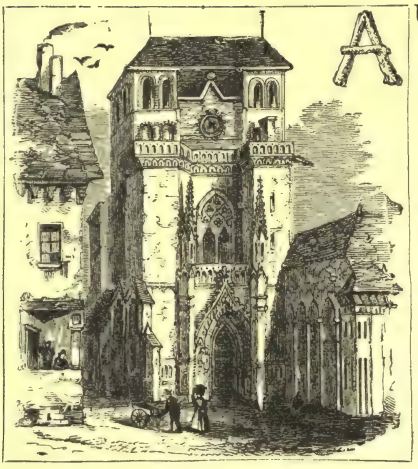
The Constitution of the German Empire.



NATIONAL interests of the highest order were considered as involved in the task of setting up a constitution for the German empire. This business had accordingly been diligently carried forward; and before the end of the year 1848 the second reading of the document setting forth the "German fundamental rights" had been proceeded with. In certain points a more moderate plan than the first had been adopted; but the proposal to abolish capital punishment and the vague declaration "that no person was called upon to publish his religious convictions" were looked upon as concessions to the extreme views and unbridled license of the "left." In spite of the resistance of the "right," the party of union, the "fundamental rights" (*Grundrechte*) were printed, and distributed broadcast throughout Germany as a Christmas gift to the people. Still it could not be denied that the people, while they eagerly seized the exaggerated measure of liberty proffered by this document, would probably "look with disdain upon the conservative addenda of the constitution," and that the establishment of the constitution would thus be surrounded with difficulties and delays. This view was amply verified by subsequent events.

The most delicate point in arranging the constitution was the question who was to be the head of the State. Gagern had already declared for an hereditary ruler; and if Austria was to be excluded from the German confederacy of States there was no doubt that the influence of Prussia would carry all before it, and that the difficulties would find their solution in the setting up of a Prussian hereditary empire. The most various plans were, however, brought forward. The Reactionaries and Conservatives proposed a reconstruction of the Diet; the Republicans proposed a presidency, to which office every German who had attained his majority, should be eligible, as in the United States of America; others, again, were for setting up a "directory," or college of princes, a supreme council, in which Austria and Prussia should preside by turns; and once more the old idea was brought forward, of a "triad," which involved the injustice of associating Bavaria with Austria and Prussia in the presidency, and thus setting up two Catholic Powers in the south against one Protestant State in the north. And then there was a great diversity of voices on the question whether the head of the State should be elected for life or for a certain number of years, or if the office of the ruler should be strictly hereditary. At length those clauses in the scheme of the constitution which declared that the rule of the empire should be entrusted to one of the German princes with the title "Emperor of the Germans" were adopted by a majority on the 23rd of January, 1849; but when the question concerning the hereditary nature of this dignity was brought forward the required number of voices could not be obtained.

Attitude of Austria and Prussia.



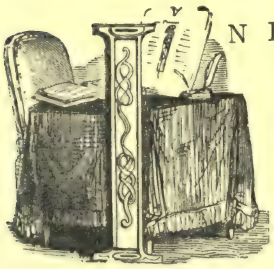
AUSTRIA and Prussia in their attitude towards the National Assembly of Frankfort were naturally opposed to each other. On the 3rd of February, 1849, the first reading of the German constitution was completed, and it was now the time for the Governments to express their opinions. The medium and the smaller States had declared themselves ready to acknowledge the work of the National Assembly, but the kingdoms had as yet maintained silence. Prussia had, however, issued a circular note to all the German principalities, coinciding in a limited and cautious way with Gagern's programme, and suggesting that the various Governments should send in their opinions with a view of arriving at an understanding by way of compromise and mutual concession. The circular declared emphatically that Prussia was not striving for any increase of position or influence for herself, and desired that the former relations of Germany to Austria and to Denmark and the Netherlands should remain unchanged, and should form the basis of the further union, proposing that a new union should be created *within the older one*, for the furtherance of the common good. Austria, on the other hand, in a note issued on the 4th of February, expressed exactly opposite sentiments, repudiating any idea of centralization, and rejecting the proposal of the dual Power of a wider and a narrower union. The idea of Austria was to found a gigantic State in Central Europe, consisting of 70,000,000 inhabitants of all nations and races. Rumours were quickly afloat that Austria's designs involved nothing less than the abrogation of the parliament, the abolition of the smaller principalities, and an agreement with the kings for the setting up of a new confederation. Here were the elements of discord in full operation; and the members of the "Great German" party, who were desirous of gaining time, contrived that the question of the Government should be postponed for a time, while the law of elections was brought forward for immediate consideration.

This law of elections was the "heel of Achilles" in the Assembly, the one vulnerable point; and a considerable number of members (194) objected to its being brought forward. Through the influence of the democratic left a law of a revolutionary character was passed, a measure which declared that every German of good character who had attained his 28th year should have a vote, and that the elections were to be conducted by means of unsigned voting papers. This law of elections, built up on the broadest democratic basis, injured the Assembly in the eyes of the many who considered, from experience derived from history, that universal suffrage is incompatible with a lasting and powerful form of government; and it furnished an advantageous point of attack, of which the enemies of the proposed constitution were not slow to avail themselves.



DISTURBANCES IN FRANKFORT. ATTACK ON THE GUARD HOUSE.

Completion of the Constitution.



IN February and March, 1849, the National Assembly was more divided than ever, and there seemed no prospect of a good understanding. The Austro-Bavarian party clamoured for a directory of seven members, under the presidency of an Imperial Stadtholder, and proposed all kinds of alterations in the reactionary direction. The party for "hereditary empire" stood in direct opposition to the Austrians; and the democratic left sought to strengthen its position by offering its support to either party alternately, in return for stipulated concessions—a corrupt and venal method of proceeding, which lowered the whole Assembly and injured its influence in the eyes of the nation. The Assembly at Olmütz and the Diet at Kremsier also acted, not only without concert with the National Assembly, but in direct opposition to it; and the intentions of Austria to eliminate all popular elements from the German government of the future became so palpable and alarming, that the deputy Welcker, on the 12th of March, suddenly brought forward a series of resolutions, calling upon the Assembly to pass the constitution as a whole without delay, to offer the dignity of hereditary Emperor to the King of Prussia, and to invite all the German princes to patriotic co-operation in this measure for the furtherance of the general good: "The fatherland is in danger; save the fatherland!" were the concluding words of his address. But selfish interests and prejudices rendered this bold attempt abortive. The time for enthusiastic unity and patriotic action had

gone by ; and when the proposals, on which a committee had reported favourably, were brought to the vote, they were rejected, to the surprise even of those members who had voted against them.

The party in favour of hereditary Empire found some consolation in the fact that their opponents were unable to carry through the scheme for a directorial government. They could thwart the Imperialists, but were not sufficiently strong to enforce their own scheme. In an extraordinary sitting on the 27th of March, it was decided that the head of the state should possess hereditary authority with the title "Emperor of the Germans," and that this dignity should be offered to the King of Prussia was a foregone conclusion. But the narrowness of the majority precluded this decision from being accepted as an indication of the national will.

While these things were in progress at Frankfort, the two great German States were gradually recovering from their state of stupefaction, and acknowledged to some extent the necessity of remodelling their institutions according to the spirit of the time. Accordingly promises were made of important reforms in Austria and Prussia, with increased freedom in matters of law, religion, and commerce. At the Diet opened at Kremsier on the 22nd of November, 1848, the Government declared that it honestly intended to establish constitutional monarchy, and that "renewed Austria" would put forth a claim to its rightful position with regard to Germany. But distrust was excited by the news that on the 2nd of December, 1848, the Emperor Ferdinand had abdicated his throne, while the next heir, the Archduke Francis Charles, surrendered his rights of succession in favour of his son, Francis Joseph, who was proclaimed Emperor of Austria, on the alleged ground that the projected reforms required younger men to carry them out. It might well be feared that the new Government might not consider itself bound by its predecessor's promises, though the young Emperor issued a liberal manifesto, promising equality to all citizens before the law, equal political rights for all the nations under Austrian rule, and participation of the people by their representatives in the making of the laws. But the Schwarzenberg-Stadion ministry, with its ideas based on the doctrines of the "right divine of monarchs," was accustomed to consider political questions from a very different point of view from that of a tribunal originating in revolutionary times, and showed itself more and more opposed to the principle of the sovereignty of the people, which guided the deliberations of the Frankfort and Kremsier Assemblies ; and the disordered condition of the Imperial finances necessitated continual applications for money to the Diet, which increased the irritation. At length disunion reached such a height that at daybreak on the 7th of March, 1849, the Archbishop's Palace at Kremsier, where the Diet held its meetings, was surrounded by troops, and the deputies were compelled to depart ; the reason for this high-handed action of the Government being that the Assembly was declared to have exceeded its powers, and had taken up a position which was incompatible with loyal obedience to the Emperor.



REVOLUTIONARY DANGERS OF 1848. TAKING THE OATH IN A SECRET SOCIETY.

The Second National Assembly in Berlin.—Offer of the Imperial Crown to Prussia.

THESE events naturally exercised a grave influence upon Prussia, where the newly elected Chambers were united, while the city was still in a state of siege, on the 26th of February, 1849. Although the officials had exerted themselves most strenuously to influence the elections in the interests of the Government, a considerable leaven of the democratic element was to be found, especially in the Second Chamber, not strong enough, indeed, to command a majority, but sufficient in numerical force to form a strong opposition; while the Upper Chamber, chosen by a limited number of electors, was conservative. Soon the Lower Chamber was divided into two hostile factions, who stood day by day opposed to each other, and ready for war. It soon became manifest that an Assembly in which the one half opposed a continual negative to every proposition of the other, could lead to no practical or advantageous result; and in the virulence of the debates, especially on the question of the continued state of siege, the causes were already evident which were soon to lead to a second dissolution.

It was on the 3rd of April, 1849, that King Frederick William IV. received, in the Knights' Hall of the palace at Berlin, the deputation that, in the name of the National Assembly, offered him the imperial crown of Germany, with hereditary succession, on condition that he consented to accept and to carry out the constitution, the result of so many combats and debates, in all its branches. It was an important epoch in history; and the importance of the proffered gift was enhanced by the honourable character and position of those who brought it, the deputation consisting of more than thirty members of the Frankfort National Assembly, with the worthy and astute President Simson at their head.

Once more the German nation looked with hopeful expectation upon the Assembly, which had partly forfeited the public sympathy by the length of its deliberations. The journey to Berlin resembled a triumph. But the hope that the constitution of a new Empire would close the period of revolution and commence a new and happier epoch was frustrated. Frederick William IV. replied to President Simson's address in ambiguous terms, which seemed to indicate refusal of the offer; which excited the greater surprise, as a recent speech of the minister Von Brandenburg, in the Upper Chamber, had given rise to very different expectations: and indeed the king appears to have been not disinclined at first to accept the offer, until at length, at the eleventh hour, he characteristically declined the offer of a crown which came to him not "by the grace of God," but through a revolutionary movement. He also feared that acceptance might involve him in a war with Austria, which would have been exceedingly repugnant to his romantic nature. Thus the deputation of the National Assembly, disheartened at the king's refusal, and mortified by the cool reception they everywhere experienced, returned to Frankfort after a few days, no longer triumphant as they had gone forth, but almost like scattered fugitives. Thus the German constitution, which had cost so many combats and such arduous labours, was relegated once more to the chances of an uncertain future. King Frederick William IV. had a splendid opportunity of surrounding his house with new glory and honour, without the tremendous responsibility of war and conquest. He might have been the ruler, guardian, and guide of a renewed Germany. His acceptance would probably have been followed by the acquiescence of the other Governments; his refusal involved the whole enterprise in disastrous failure.

The Later Days of the National Assembly at Frankfort.

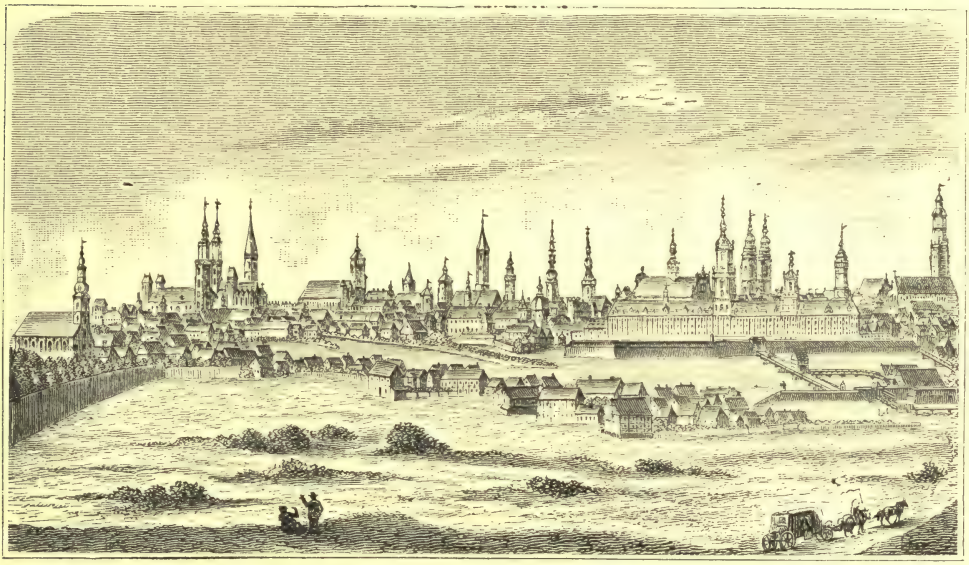


DURING the time that elapsed, while the Prussian Government had not definitely declared its intentions, and entirely declined the proffered Imperial crown, the Imperial party in the National Assembly at Frankfort endeavoured to temporize. Determined, however, to hold fast by the constitution, which was to be set up as its banner, the various crude schemes were repudiated which proposed an alteration in this vital question ; and the same fate befell various innovations brought forward by the Directorial faction. The members of the Austrian party were soon after called away by a summons from Olmütz, whereupon a fusion took place between the moderates of the Imperial party and the "men of progress" of the left, by which both were strengthened and regained much of their popularity. Before the 14th of April, 1849, twenty-eight of the German Governments, with the grand duchy of Baden at their head, had already given in their adhesion to the constitution ; but the kingdoms, Bavaria, Hanover, Saxony, and Würtemberg, delayed with their acquiescence, partly moved by individual interests, partly by Austrian influences, and avoided the pressure they feared at the hands of their deputies by frequent prorogations. Prussia joined in this policy, and thus provoked a breach with the Frankfort Assembly. On the 27th of April the ministry pronounced the dissolution of the Second and the prorogation of the First Chamber ; and by its endeavours to obtain from the German Governments the transfer of the provisional central power to Prussia, and thus to obtain for that kingdom the chief authority, without co-operation with the National Assembly or acknowledgment of the constitution, the last bond between Prussia and the Frankfort Parliament was severed.

On the 25th of April the Prussian plenipotentiary, Camphausen, handed a note to the central Government, in which Prussia definitely declined to acknowledge the constitution on the ground that the traditions and reminiscences of the monarchy were entirely disregarded in it. "The power of public opinion ought to be acknowledged," said the note ; "but if complete deference were paid to it, the ship would never reach the safe harbour." Thus the die was cast ; and a similar note despatched by Bavaria, likewise repudiating the constitution, served to increase the influence of the "left" or democratic party, who thereupon carried some violent measures : and this gave the opposing Governments a welcome pretext for recalling their representatives.

But if Prussia had hoped, by declining the Imperial crown and repudiating the constitution offered for acceptance with the diadem, and by its public declaration to use its power for the suppression of revolutionary demonstrations, and by its offer to march to the assistance of allied powers in their hour of need, if they should be threatened by democratic outbursts : if by these various promises Prussia hoped to gain the favour of the Governments, that hope soon proved fallacious. The various Governments of Germany had given in their adhesion to the plan of unification, not from any principle or

even impulse of patriotism, but simply in consequence of the pressure put upon them by the national will; and they could not be brought to look with equanimity on a scheme that would lessen their individual authority. All the efforts of Prussia to acquire the provisional management of the public affairs of Germany proved fruitless. In spite of the scorn and contempt with which it was assailed, the "Great German" party held together, and thus prevented the severing of the bond which united Austria to Germany. Prussia was strong enough to ignore this impotent "central Power," and to put it aside; but by interference in the affairs of other States it committed the very fault it had so severely censured in the National Assembly and the central Power. The smaller principalities were compelled to keep to their acknowledgment of the constitution and to the central Government at Frankfort, from fear of the democrats and of the excited masses of the people; and the kings showed little inclination to submit to the dominant power of Prussia. A congress



OLD VIEW OF BRESLAU.

was held in Berlin with the object of altering the constitution; but only Hanover, Saxony, and Bavaria took part in it; and as Bavaria shortly afterwards retired, the congress could only be looked upon as an alliance between three kings. A new law of election, by which the electors were divided into three classes according to their property qualification, and which accordingly shut out the working man from the franchise, disgusted the democrats, who from that time kept sullenly aloof from the elections.

Undismayed by opposition, Prussia came into the foreground, with energetic action combating lawlessness and disorder wherever they reared their heads, and rendering life and property secure. And in spite of the reactionary tendency exhibited by the great North German Power, even the patriots, concerned at the increasing spirit of license and insubordination, were inclined to look almost with favour upon its action; excepting in one country, where the conduct of Prussia excited strong feelings of anger, and alienated the hearts of a noble and high-minded nation. That country was Schleswig-Holstein.

SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.—REVOLT OF SAXONY.



WITH admirable perseverance and moderation the population of the United Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein had pursued their object—the gaining of an independent constitution, and annexation to the kindred race of the Germans. The people had even acquiesced in that truce of Malmö, which had excited such violent scenes in Frankfort, conscious that they could attain their object only by means of German help. In March, 1849, the armistice came to an end, and the war was resumed. A German army, consisting of various nations of the German race, entered Schleswig, and gained several victories over the Danes, the chief triumph being the capture of the strong fortifications of Düppel, on which occasion the brave Bavarian, Colonel von der Tann, greatly distinguished himself. The storming of the frontier town of Kolding and the victory of Gudsoe opened the road to Jutland to the invading army. But the Prussian troops, under General von Prittwitz, remained inactive in their quarters, while the Schleswig-Holstein troops were combating bravely; and thus new suspicions and jealousies were excited. When the Prussians at length advanced, they so uniformly avoided giving the Danes battle, and kept so strictly on the defensive, that it was easy to see they were only keeping up the appearance of hostilities until the negotiations for peace, which had already secretly begun, could be brought to completion. The fact was, affairs in Germany were assuming such a threatening aspect that Prussia ardently desired to be quit of the war, especially as England and Russia favoured the Danes, and refused to consent to the separation of Schleswig and Holstein from Denmark. Thus during the months of May and June the warlike operations languished. The soldiers became discontented, while the inhabitants groaned under the burden of war. The Danes, on their part, took fresh courage, and their general, Rye, attacked the Germans with such impetuosity at Fridericia as to inflict a signal defeat upon them, capturing their redoubts and all their artillery.

The news of this event created general indignation throughout Germany. It was declared that the national honour had been sacrificed to the exigences of a crooked policy; and the general anger was increased when, immediately afterwards, a dishonourable peace was concluded, by which Schleswig was separated from Holstein, being placed under an English commissioner ruling in the name of the King of Denmark. Thus the aspirations of a brave people were again disappointed, and Schleswig had for years to endure the evils of oppression and despotic rule; but they never wavered in their intention of making a new struggle for union with Germany, when the times should warrant the effort.

In the Frankfort Parliament the democratic "left" had consistently opposed the constitution through every stage of its progress; but when the Governments repudiated the constitution they altered their tactics, and called upon the nations of Germany to raise the banner of rebellion against their rulers, "in defence of the constitution." Inflammatory speeches and turbulent

Assemblies soon produced a condition of fierce excitement among the people. The democrats were ingenious enough to use the appearance of right given to their proceedings by the state of affairs; and under the cloak of zeal for constitutional unity, worked for the republic and the cause of the demagogues and revolutionists. The democratic incendiaries had now a favourable opportunity of fighting under an honourable flag; and never was a noble cause more unscrupulously disgraced than when the deluded people were hounded on to insurrection against the "rebellious" rulers and Governments.

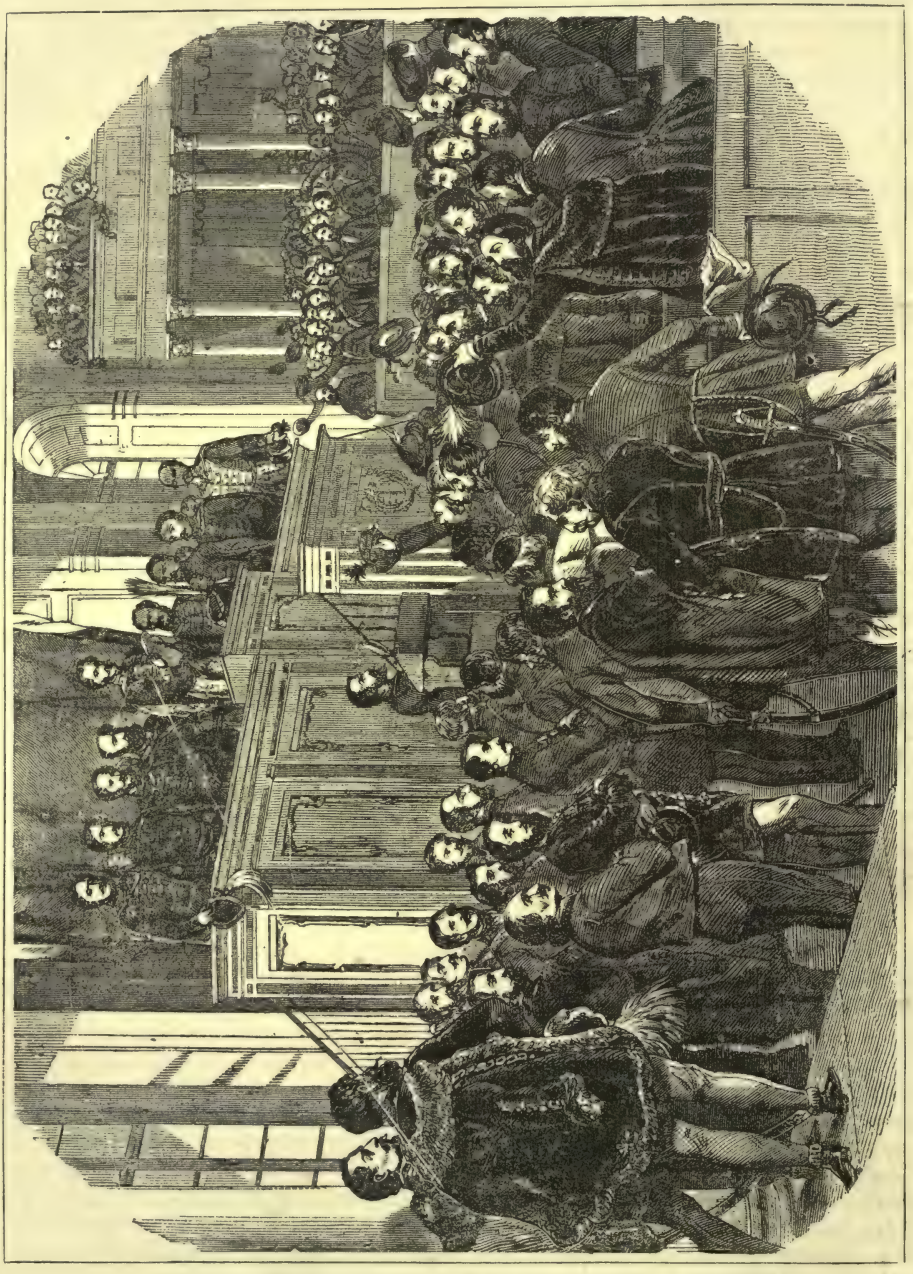
The first movements took place in those States where the Governments had refused to receive the constitution. The King of Würtemberg was forced by the deputies to acknowledge the constitution unconditionally, however difficult he might find it to make submission to a Hohenzollern. In the Rhenish province of Prussia, and in Westphalia, the municipal estates kept within the bounds of law and order; except in isolated cases, where barricade fighting took place, as in Düsseldorf and Elbersfeld.

The Insurrection in Dresden.



It was in Saxony that the most serious outbreak took place, for here the revulsion had been most complete, from the pedantic severity of the old laws to the democratic license of the new. An Assembly of the estates had been convened, elected on the broadest democratic principle, the Lower Chamber being chosen by universal suffrage; and in the wild and sweeping changes it inaugurated, this Assembly presented a miserable parody of constitutional rule, and was not unjustly designated as the "representation of sovereign imbecility." The Assembly sounded the alarm on the democratic war trumpet, and insisted on the acknowledgment of the constitution by the Government. The king thereupon dissolved the Assembly, justifying his action by the example of Prussia; and deputations from various towns and societies, who urged the Government to recognise the constitution, were dismissed with a refusal.

This refusal was the signal for an insurrection in the capital. On the 3rd of May, 1849, an angry mob attacked the arsenal and endeavoured to carry off the weapons, but met with a repulse from the military guard posted there. Then the alarm bells were rung; barricades of great strength were erected in the streets, and a murderous fight between the people and the Saxon troops began. On the next day crowds of men, mostly armed with pikes and rude weapons formed from scythes, came pouring from every direction into the town. The king and the royal family, with the whole of the ministry, thereupon betook themselves, under a strong military escort, to the fortress of Königstein, leaving the capital in the hands of the democratic chiefs. A provisional government, with Tzschirner, a lawyer and parliamentary deputy, at its head, undertook the management of affairs, and published a proclamation, declaring that the combat was waged for the Imperial constitution. But presently the red flag appeared, waving beside the national standard; and many laid down their arms, scared by the red spectre of democracy, and unwilling to give assistance to the savage hordes who fought against all



MEETING OF THE HUNGARIAN DIET IN 1848.

order and made war upon property. In Leipsic also, where the citizens were in favour of the constitution, the communal guard nevertheless turned out to maintain the cause of order against the insurgents.

The time was now come when the Prussian ministry had to fulfil the promise solemnly given. An appeal was despatched to Berlin for help, and on the 6th of May Prussian troops took the field against the men of the barricades. It was an obstinate and a murderous conflict. From the roofs and windows of the houses, from behind the barricades, and from every point of vantage the insurgents defended themselves with astonishing hardihood and perseverance. The opera house, the palace called the "Zwinger," and various other buildings were burnt; and for three days the combat raged, until at length discipline and military skill triumphed over ferocity and revenge. On the 9th of May, at a given signal, the free bands began to retire, and in a few hours the town was in the hands of the military. A state of siege was immediately proclaimed in Dresden and the surrounding country. The prisons were filled with captives, and many were tried by court-martial, and shot. Tzschirner and several other chiefs saved themselves by flight; others, among them Heubner and the Russian Bakunin, expiated their crime by suffering the utmost severity of the law.

The End of the Frankfort Assembly.—The Rump Parliament.

IN the Assembly at Frankfort a hot debate was in progress on a proposition of the left, that the troops belonging to the States who had accepted the constitution should take an oath of fidelity to that system, when the first news arrived of the terrible outbreak in Dresden. The news of the march of the Prussians into Saxony caused great excitement. The left cried out that the Saxons had placed themselves under the protection of the Assembly and should be protected accordingly. Gagern on the other hand stood appalled at the idea of kindling the torch of civil war among fellow countrymen, and a succession of stormy scenes took place between the Gagern party and the democratic left. Meanwhile a movement had begun in the Bavarian Palatinate for enforcing the constitution. A militia was organized, and steps were taken for secession from Bavaria. The left demanded that the insurrections in Saxony and the Palatinate should be energetically supported. Gagern tried to bring about a compromise, but failed. The left passed a resolution declaring the interference of Prussia in Saxony unjustifiable, and that it should be opposed by every means at command; and various similar propositions were put forward, not one of which was practicable. The Assembly continued to exist, but it had fallen into decrepitude, and could effect nothing. For a time all eyes were fixed upon Gagern, who clung manfully to his post with daily decreasing influence. The Prussian deputies were summoned away to the National Assembly in Berlin. At length Gagern and his adherents reluctantly confessed that between the two



extreme parties of reaction and of revolution, who were fighting desperately for supremacy, they, the moderates, could effect nothing.

The retirement of the Gagern party left the field free for the revolutionary energy of the left. Presently twenty-two more members retired. When a member proposed a resolution declaring the constitution to be the great aim of the insurrectionary movement, and repudiating all foreign interference in the affairs of Germany, the motion was lost; whereupon another large number of members resigned. The rest, dominated by the left, then proposed to remove the Assembly to Stuttgart, whither it was accordingly transferred, the remnant of members, about a hundred in number, who took their seats



RIOTS IN GERMANY, IN 1849.

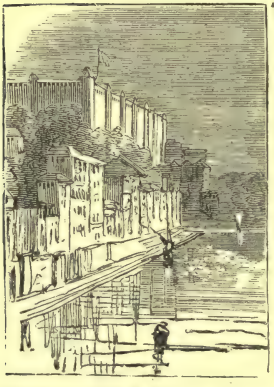
there being designated the Rump Parliament. The Assembly had lost all respect, honour, and influence. A regency of five members, appointed from among the members, gave emphatic approval to the insurrections in Baden and the Palatinate. This revolutionary proceeding aroused the anger of the minister, President Römer, who called upon the Assembly to choose a place of meeting beyond the frontiers of Würtemberg. On the 18th of June, the house where they met was locked, and the members who wished to enter were driven away. They published a last note, declaring that they had yielded to physical force, and dispersed. Some sought refuge in republican States, others became mixed up in insurrectionary movements, and others re-appeared as prisoners charged with political offences. Such was the lamentable end of the first German Parliament.



REVOLTS AND THEIR SUPPRESSION.

EXCITEMENT IN GERMANY.—THE PALATINATE AND BADEN.—SOCIALISTIC AND REPUBLICAN IDEAS.—THE MILITARY MUTINY.—ITS FORMIDABLE NATURE. — ITS SUPPRESSION BY THE INTERVENTION OF PRUSSIA.—CONDITION OF HUNGARY.—THE MAGYARS, SERBS, CROATS, ETC.—CONFLICT OF RACES.—REFORMS PROMISED UNWILLINGLY BY AUSTRIA.—BATHYANI AND KOSSUTH. — JELLACHICH AND THE CROATS.—PRINCE WINDISCHGRÄTZ.—REVOLT IN HUNGARY.—BEM AND DEMBINSKI.—VICTORIES OF THE HUNGARIANS.—BATTLES AND SIEGES.—INTERVENTION OF RUSSIA.—HAYNAU AND PASKEWITCH. GÖRGEY'S TREASON.—SURRENDER AT VILLAGOS.—CALAMITOUS FATE OF THE CONQUERED NATION.—CRUELTIES OF HAYNAU.—SUPPRESSION OF MAGYAR INDEPENDENCE.—FLIGHT OF KOSSUTH, DEMBINSKI, AND OTHER CHIEFS.

THE PALATINATE AND BADEN.



THE angry excitement that had everywhere manifested itself when Prussia repudiated the constitution inspired the republican party with hopes of achieving by a general summons to revolt what they had failed to accomplish in the previous year. They appeared now to have a reasonable ground for action and a means of influencing the less pronounced democrats. Accordingly the agitation was begun in those principalities whose rulers had declined to accept the constitution—in Würtemberg, Saxony, the Prussian Rhineland and Westphalia, and in the Bavarian Palatinate on the Rhine. The last mentioned region had already, in 1832, been the centre of liberal agitation. In the excited state of the public mind the success of the agitators in 1849 was rapid and startling. Great numbers of volunteers, barricade men, restless demagogues, emigrant Poles, adventurers, and many ardent and hotheaded young artisans and students, flocked to the standards of revolt. In the two fortresses Landau and

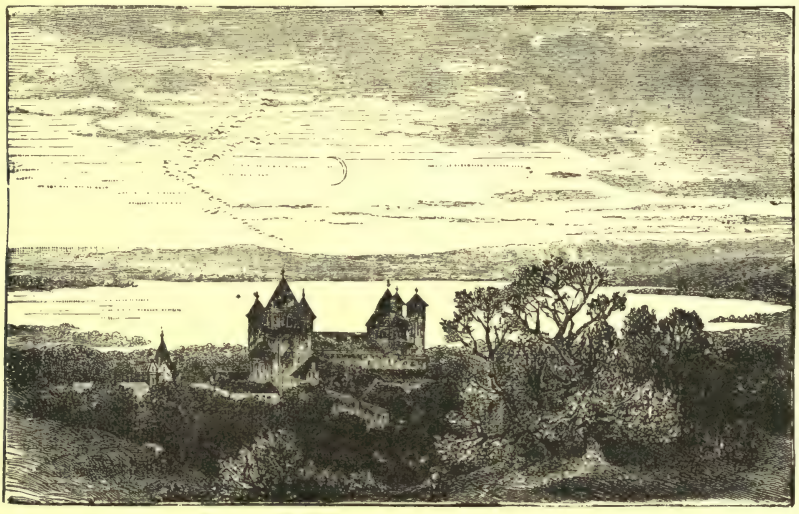
Germersheim numbers of the soldiers marched out singly or in troops, with knapsack, musket, and sabre, to join the insurgents, so that the officers had to stand sentry and do the duty of privates in the fortresses. In the neighbouring Duchy of Baden, a more general and formidable insurrectionary movement was organized than had appeared in any part of Germany. The proximity of the country to the two democratic Republics, France in the west, and Switzerland in the south, rendered the Duchy especially accessible to the influence of the new ideas; and the Government had certainly contributed not a little, by prejudiced hatred of all innovation, by the peremptory denial of reforms, by influence exerted in the public elections, and by a systematic keeping down of all liberal officials in past years, to strengthen and embitter the feeling of opposition and the longing for changes among the people. The estrangement of the people from their rulers caused Baden to be deeply agitated by the events in France, in February, 1848; and repeated attempts to set up the flag of rebellion, round which all Germany was to rally, kept the people in a constant state of ferment. The two men who had the greatest influence as popular leaders were the poet Herwegh and a democrat, Frederick Hecker. The latter especially was idolised by the hot-headed youth of Baden, and roused to wild enthusiasm the excited fancy of the common people. The rapid and ignominious defeat of the insurgents, and the precipitate flight of the men of liberty in 1848, did not rob Hecker of his popularity. A fugitive, first in Switzerland and then in America, he still continued to be a popular hero. In September, 1848, Struve, an advocate of Mannheim, came to Baden from Switzerland, and attempted to excite revolt; but his extreme republican doctrines found little support among the peasants, who took him prisoner and delivered him up to justice, to expiate his attempt in the cellular prison at Bruchsal.

But in 1849 events assumed a different aspect. A decree of the Frankfort Parliament had caused the military forces to be increased in the various Governments, and many unwilling recruits had been added to the ranks of the Baden army, not a few among them being deeply imbued with republican ideas; some had even taken part in Hecker's expedition of the previous year. The abolition of the system of allowing substitutes in military service, and the occasionally harsh and brutal treatment of the soldiers by their officers, increased the general dissatisfaction; and at length, on the 11th of May, 1849, a most formidable military mutiny broke out at Rastadt. Some of the unpopular officers were wounded; the rest were driven away, and the soldiers took possession of the fortress. At Lörrach similar scenes took place. The Government, in great alarm, turned for succour to Frankfort, requesting the speedy despatch of Imperial troops. But the central Government had at that moment no soldiers at its disposal; and at a popular meeting held at Offenburg, such extravagant socialistic ideas were enunciated that all the more moderate men kept aloof from a movement that seemed doomed to destruction by its own frenzy.

The revolutionary fever quickly spread to Carlsruhe, where the soldiers also revolted, wrecking the barracks, and killing a captain of cavalry, who tried to restore order, and a non-commissioned officer and private who accompanied him. The whole capital was a scene of tumult and violence. The grand duke and his family fled from the palace at Carlsruhe in the dead of night, betaking themselves first to Germersheim and then to the little town of Lauterburg, in Alsace, whither the ministers of state quickly followed. A committee, entrusted by the insurgents with the task of forming a provisional

Government, took up its abode in Carlsruhe; and Brentano, the head of the provisional Government, assured the citizens that public order would be maintained, and that all the efforts of the committee should be directed towards establishing the constitution. Many took part in the movement in the honest belief that they were fighting for the establishment of constitutional liberty in Germany. The various free corps who came flocking to Carlsruhe as to a common centre, mingled with the soldiers; and the new Government ordered a general levy of all able-bodied men between eighteen years and thirty. In a short time all the elements of revolution were collected in Baden.

The victory of the radicals in Baden could only bring success to the republican faction if the neighbouring States could be drawn into the movement. Accordingly a fraternal union was inaugurated with the Palatinate; and Hesse Darmstadt, Nassau, and Würtemberg were excited by democratic agitation. But when the insurgent Baden troops marched with all the pomp of military music across the Hessian frontier, to fraternize with the Hessians,



THE LAKE OF LAACH, NEAR ANDERNACH.

they were received with bombshells; which so confounded them that they retreated in disorder to Heidelberg. It was a critical moment; for the soldiers, now that the first excitement was past, began to doubt whether their new officers would be equal to the task they had undertaken; and their confidence sank when they saw that the revolution could not be carried across the frontier.

Würtemberg appeared to offer a better soil for the revolutionary seed, and when the Rump Parliament was transferred to Stuttgart, and Fickler and other leaders appeared to exhort the Würtembergers to fraternal alliance with the men of Baden and the Palatinate, the hopes of the insurgents once more rose. It was a dangerous crisis. In various towns in Prussia the summoning of the landwehr had called forth resistance. In Elberfeld and Düsseldorf barricades had been erected. Nassau seemed ripe for revolt. Then it was that the energy and courage of Römer, a ready and a popular man, saved South Germany from insurrection. The Rump Parliament was expelled from Stuttgart. Fickler was apprehended and shut up at Hohenasberg, and the

proceedings of the native and foreign democrats were summarily stopped. Thus the revolution was confined to the Rhine districts in the south-west.

The revolution being thus isolated and prevented from spreading, the radicals in Baden were unable to make any real use of their victory. The Government they set up proved a lamentable satire upon free institutions, though the wild, socialistic designs of Struve were to some extent counteracted by the sober sense of Brentano, a clear-headed man of republican sentiments, but free from impracticable delusions. Meanwhile the grand duke had betaken himself to Ehrenbreitstein, and from thence to Frankfort; appealing for help first



PRINCE WINDISCHGRÄTZ.

to the central Power, and afterwards, when that proved useless, as there was no available force at hand, to Prussia. The Prussian Government would grant the required assistance only on condition that Baden joined the three kings' union; accordingly the grand duke dismissed his ministry, and attached himself entirely to Prussia. And when the Bavarian ministry also made an application that Prussian troops should be sent into the Palatinate, a combined attack on the revolutionized country was planned. Prussian troops, under experienced generals, with the Prince of Prussia as commander-in-chief, marched to the south. The heads of the provisional Government in Baden and the Palatinate called in Mieroslawski, the Pole, and invested him with the chief command of the insurgent army; but the new leader, though he brought

the chaotic elements into something like order, was not more fortunate than he had been in Posen and Sicily. In June the Prussian army entered the Palatinate, and marched through the country almost without encountering opposition. Then they crossed the Rhine at Philippsburg, and inflicted a crushing defeat on the insurgents at Waghäusel, on the 15th of June, 1849. Many of the insurgents escaped into Switzerland; others took refuge behind the ramparts of Rastadt, where they held out for some weeks, but were then compelled, from want of provisions, to surrender at discretion.

Thus the insurrection in Baden was put down. The grand duke returned to his capital; the old state of things was restored. The casemates and dungeons of the fortresses and the prisons of the towns was filled with captives, and Prussian courts-martial condemned to death and shot many. Hecker, who had been invited over from America by the provisional Government, found, on landing at Boulogne, that the revolt had already been put down, and was obliged to betake himself once more to his place of refuge beyond the Atlantic. The duchy was placed under martial law, and occupied by Prussian troops until the army had been reconstructed.

The Revolt and Humiliation of Hungary.



LOUIS KOSSUTH.

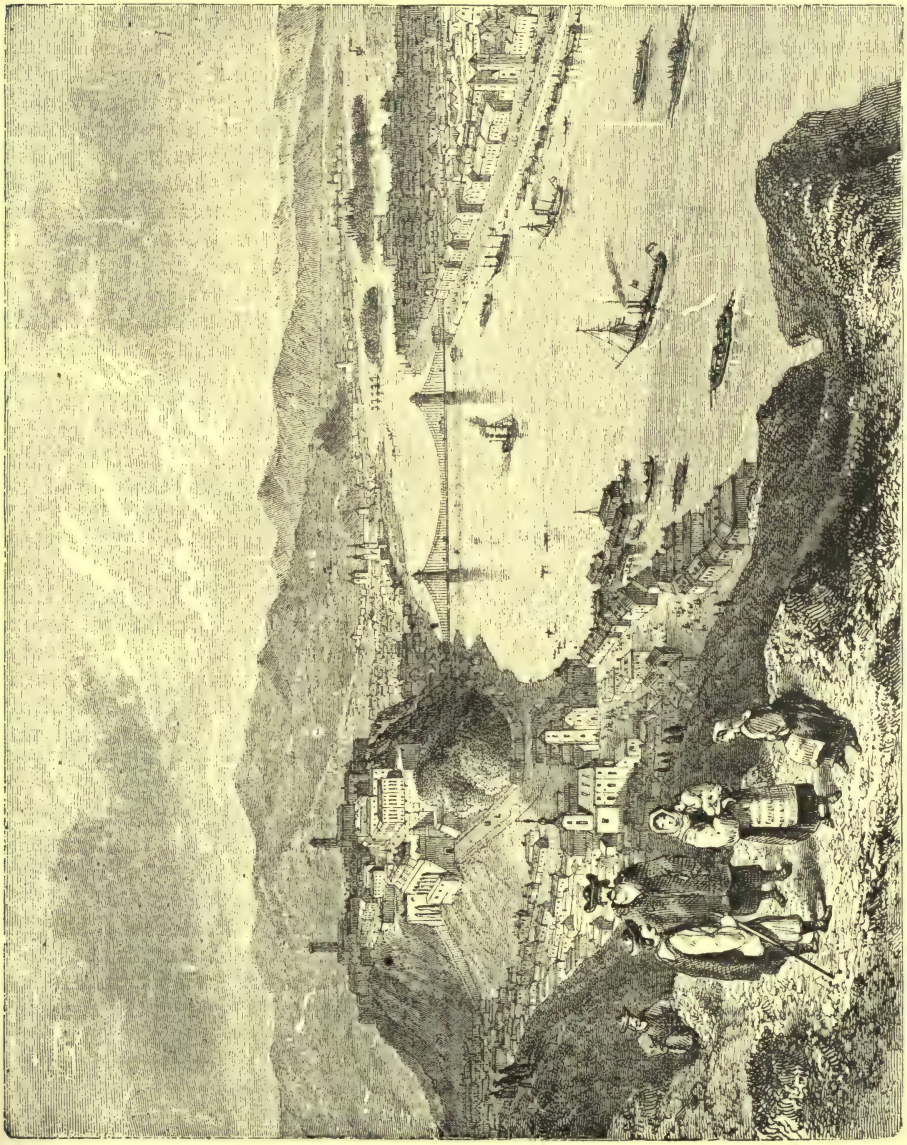
THE storm that ravaged Europe during the eventful years of 1848 and 1849 nowhere raged with such a fury of devastation as in the beautiful and unhappy Kingdom of Hungary. That kingdom was the brightest jewel in the diadem of Hapsburg. It was Hungary that had at various times, and notably in the first Silesian war, stood up manfully in defence of its Austrian monarch; and it was Hungary that was doomed to suffer the extremity of cruelty and treachery at the hands of the Power it had served so well.

For some years previously great reforms had been in progress in Hungary. By the diligent and unremitting labours of patriotic men, in the national Diet, an agitation had been commenced for the abolition of the old feudal restrictions that weighed upon the country; such as, inequality of taxation, privileges of the nobles, burdens upon agricultural industry. The Austrian Government, sorely pressed by the dangers and troubles of the time, had given its consent to these reforms; and freedom of the press, a liberal election law on a democratic basis, and various other concessions were granted from Vienna. Two men, especially, were striving hard in the Hungarian Diet to restore their country to the place it had once occupied, before the jealousy of the Hapsburg house had deprived it of its liberties and immunities; the first of these was Count Louis Bathyani, an enlightened and public-spirited patriot, the president of the Diet; the other, whose name has become celebrated throughout the world, was Louis Kossuth, one of the most active members of the Assembly. Among other changes, Kossuth had worked hard for the restoration of the old language of the Magyars, as the official language of the country, instead of the Latin, which until then had been used in the Diet.

But these proceedings led to a fierce conflict of races in the Diet and throughout the country, and afterwards to a most sanguinary and ruthless war. Besides the Magyar race, to which Kossuth and Bathyani belonged, there were many inhabitants of Hungary of the Sclavonic race. They dwelt in the south, in Croatia, Sclavonia, Dalmatia, and the military frontier. At that time the Pansclavistic idea was in full force, that aimed at uniting the Sclavonic races into one Power; accordingly the Sclavonic and the Magyar elements were quickly at war with each other. In March, 1848, a Croat and a Magyar deputation were despatched to Vienna at the same time; the former to petition the Government for the erection of Croatia, Sclavonia, etc., into a separate state, the latter to urge the maintenance of the Hungarian kingdom in its integrity. The Austrian Government, which had reluctantly consented to the Hungarian reforms under the pressure of circumstances, and looked with an evil eye upon the progress and prosperity of the Magyar kingdom, seized upon this opportunity of stirring up national hatreds to weaken Hungary. Accordingly the Croat prayer was in a certain measure granted by the appointment of Baron Jellachich, a sworn and bitter foe to the Magyars, to the office of Ban, or ruler of Croatia; while the Hungarians were propitiated with fair promises and soft words. Jellachich, rightly interpreting the action of the Government, pushed on his opposition to open insurrection against the Magyar kingdom. The Emperor Ferdinand, indeed, issued a manifesto highly disapproving of this step, and depriving Jellachich of his position as Ban. But the court maintained the Croat Governor in office, and encouraged him in representing the insurrection against the Magyars as a holy war for freedom, religion, and national independence; and a last interview between Jellachich and Bathyani did not lead to a peaceable understanding.

A horrible war now began; the warlike Serbs, Illyrians, Roumanians, and other tribes, were stirred up by fanatic clerics and Sclavic agitators, and flew to arms. They threw off their allegiance to the Magyar kingdom, and began a series of forays and plundering expeditions, which commenced with a horrible insurrection, accompanied with every kind of rapine and atrocity, in the little town of Kikinda, on Easter Monday, 1848. The Hungarians were unprepared, and the insurrection spread like wildfire, deluging the country by the Theiss and Danube with oceans of blood. The towns of Neusatz, Karlowitz, Pancsova, Weisskirchen, and many other places became the scenes of horrors almost unknown in civilized warfare; for the blood of the border tribes had been set on fire by hatreds of race. In August, however, the Hungarian armies gained two important victories at St. Thomas and Weisskirchen, by which the insurrection of the Serbs was crushed. But the hatred of the Sclavonic races had been raised to such a pitch against the Hungarians, that the reactionary party in Vienna, who had for a time gained the upper hand, saw an opportunity of reducing Hungary to a state of complete dependence. Jellachich, who had been declared a traitor by the Emperor, was now invested with supreme command of all the Austrian forces in Hungary, and publicly declared in a manifesto that he had a commission from the Emperor "to defend the interests of a deeply injured people"; and in September he raised the banner of Croatian independence, and crossed the Drave. The Magyars, anxious to the last to avoid warfare, applied to the Diet at Vienna, only to find that no redress was to be obtained in that quarter; for Jellachich was manifestly playing his game with the connivance and even the assistance of the Austrian court. Jellachich and his wild Croat hordes soon appeared in

the neighbourhood of the capital. The Archduke Stephen retired from his office of Palatine, and Bathyani gave up his position of President. Thus the management of affairs fell into the hands of the energetic and astute Kossuth and the Magyar patriots who constituted the Committee of National Defence.



BUDA-PESTH.

Count Lanberg, who was appointed commander-in-chief of the Hungarian troops, was dragged from his carriage by some Croat students, and brutally murdered. On the other hand, Count Zichy, a Hungarian magnate, who was discovered to be working for Jellachich, some of whose proclamations were found upon him, was tried by court-martial and hanged as a traitor.

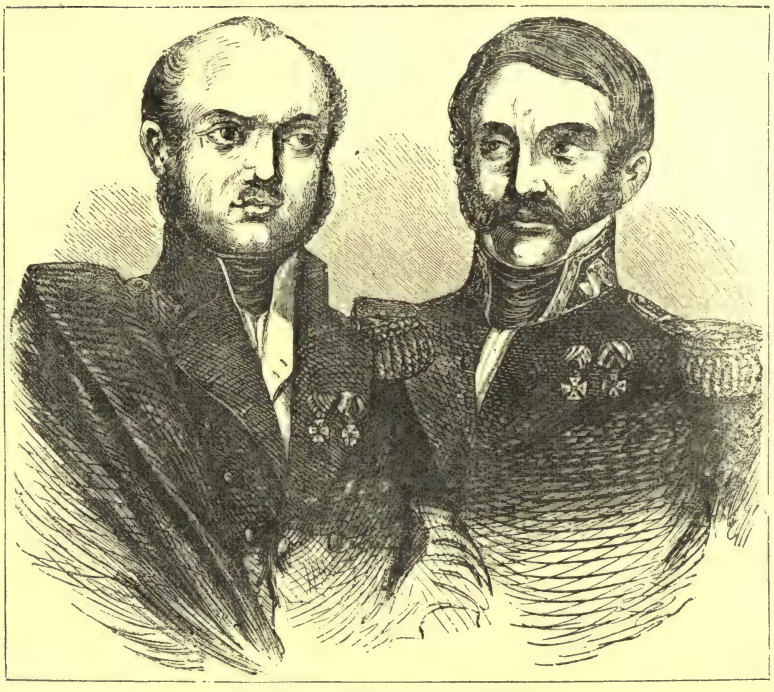
The task of re-organising the Magyar army was rapidly accomplished, and the National Guard, mounted and on foot, with the honveds, or volunteers, soon made a formidable force. Jellachich had already been twice defeated when he was hurriedly called away by the insurrection in Vienna in October, 1848. This event brought about a change in the Austrian prospects. When the insurrection in Vienna had been put down after a horrible carnage, and its chiefs, Blum, Becher, Messenhauser, and many of their followers had expiated their attempt on the gallows, the reactionary party had once more the supremacy. The policy was now to repudiate every concession that had been made to the spirit of the time; and as the Emperor Ferdinand might hesitate at such a wholesale retractation of his word, he was induced to resign, and Francis Joseph, his nephew and successor, was not to be held bound to fulfil the promises his uncle had made. The Hungarian Diet protested against this transfer of authority, and refused to consider the acts of Francis Joseph as valid, until he should have been crowned, according to custom, in Hungary, and had taken the oath to the constitution. Hereupon the chief command of the troops was given to Prince Windischgrätz, who took the field against the Magyars on the 15th of December. Kossuth had issued a stirring address to the Magyars, and an army of 200,000 men, regulars and honveds, was quickly assembled. The great Austrian army under Windischgrätz and Jellachich, moved forward through the Bakony Forest towards Ofen-Pesth, the capital. On the night of the 4th of January, 1849, Kossuth left the city, accompanied by the Committee of Defence, and carrying with him the crown of St. Stephen and the insignia of Hungarian royalty. Next day Windischgrätz and Jellachich made their entry in the twin cities, and sent the keys of Ofen and Pesth to the Emperor.

The war assumed a more regular character when the Polish general Bem, a skilful and honourable man, took the command of the Hungarian troops in the province of Siebenbürgen, to which the conflict had spread. General Dembinski was another Polish exile, whose military knowledge was of great importance to the Hungarians in the arduous struggle. But the man whose genius as a commander was acknowledged as pre-eminent at this period was Görgey, under whose command Merzaros, Perczel, Klapka, and others distinguished themselves.

The Austrian Government had thought that, with the entry of Windischgrätz into Ofen-Pesth, the Hungarian insurrection was at an end; but the tremendous battle of Kapolna on the 27th of February, a fight that lasted two days, and might have proved a decisive victory for the Hungarians but for Görgey's tardy arrival on the battlefield, soon convinced the court of Vienna that things were not yet ended. And in April Dembinski gained a great victory over General Schlick, while Jellachich and the other Austrian commanders were repeatedly beaten. Komorn, the "maiden" fortress, resisted the Austrian besiegers so long that the general had to throw the siege into a blockade, in the hope of starving out the place. The Hungarian General Klapka, at the same time stormed the important town of Waizen. Soon after Görgey and Klapka, in conjunction, relieved Komorn; whereupon the Government in Vienna recalled Windischgrätz from a task to which he was evidently not equal. Pesth was evacuated by the Austrians, and the Hungarians took possession with great rejoicing. Ofen, or Buda, on the opposite bank, was desperately defended by General Henschi, a Swiss, whose skill and energy tried the resources of Görgey to the utmost. After a tremendous bombardment, the town was taken by assault. General Henschi fell, fighting

desperately in the breach. Thereupon the Diet of Debreczin, on the 14th of April, declared the independence of Hungary, and a provisional Government was established, with Kossuth as governor. Thus the path to reconciliation was closed.

This step caused a breach between Kossuth and Görgey, whose wild ambition was dissatisfied with any place below the first, and who was not conciliated by the office of commander-in-chief, which Dembinski had transferred to him, or by his position as minister of war. He showed an utter disregard of the directions of the Government, and would follow only his own inclination in all he undertook.



GENERALS BEM AND DEMBINSKY.

Haynau and Paskewitch.—The Catastrophe of Vilagos.



HAYNAU.

UNABLE to put an end to the insurrection, which seemed to triumph throughout the whole of Hungary, Austria applied to Russia for help. On the same day that Görgey stormed Ofen a conference took place between Nicholas of Russia and the young Emperor Francis Joseph, in which the fate of Hungary was decided. Hungary triumphant would probably mean Poland in revolt. Help was therefore promised and speedily afforded. At the end of May Russian armies, under the renowned General Paskewitch, crossed the Hungarian frontier at various points; while the Austrians, under General Haynau, advanced from the west, and Ban Jellachich from the south. Hereupon Kossuth determined on the only form of resistance that remained possible—a kind of guerilla warfare, in which advantage should be taken of the difficult nature of the country to cut off the divisions of the enemy in detail, and harass them by continual and unexpected attacks.

The commencement of the renewed struggle was favourable to the Austrians, reinforced as they were by numerous Russian columns. Görgey was driven back at the end of June, 1849, by Wohlgemuth and Haynau, at the Warg and at Raab, after some valiant fighting, and was obliged to take refuge behind the fortifications of Komorn. Thereupon Haynau summoned the Hungarians to lay down their arms, threatening all who gave help or countenance to the Government at Debreczin with death by martial law. Pesth and Ofen soon fell into the hands of the Austrians, and here Haynau displayed the ruthless cruelty and tyranny which afterwards made his name a reproach to the Austrian rule. All who favoured the cause of the rebels by word or deed, such as the wearing of revolutionary badges or giving assistance to rebels, were threatened with instant death; and the same punishment was threatened to all those found in possession of Hungarian bank notes, a species of paper money that until then had circulated unhindered throughout the country.

Jellachich's army was less fortunate. After a few successes, that incapable general was compelled by Bem to retreat precipitately across the Theiss. The cholera also broke out among his troops; and his position was becoming very grave, when a new aspect was suddenly given to affairs. Görgey and Kossuth had never been reconciled, and the Hungarian Diet, which now assembled at Szegedin, had a design to remove the general, whom they distrusted, from the chief command, a thing they were not strong enough to do. The great conflict, on which the eyes of Europe were fixed, was now approach-

ing its termination. Komorn still held out under the heroic Klapka. Görgey endeavoured to prevent the junction of the Russians with the advancing Austrians, and gained a victory at Waitzen on July 15th, after which he evaded the Russian army by a masterly march across the Carpathians. On the 8th of August he was at Vilagos, not far from Arad, where Kossuth and the provisional Government were at that time staying. In the last council of war held at Arad, the opinion of the majority was that Kossuth should resign his power, and that the dictatorship should be given to Görgey. This was done, and two proclamations appeared on the 11th of August, the first signed by Kossuth and his colleagues, the second by Görgey announcing the event. Görgey now put into execution a design which he seems to have cherished for some time, and which was probably suggested by his aversion to Kossuth. On the 13th of August Görgey surrendered with his whole army of thirty thousand men and one hundred and twenty cannon to the Russian general Rüdiger, at Vilagos. Jealousy of the Polish generals associated with him, anger at the attempt to deprive him of the chief command, and his notorious dislike to Kossuth seem to have been the reasons of this determination, by which he became a traitor to the cause he had taken up. From the memoirs he afterwards published, it seems probable that he had been in communication with Paskewitch for some time. On some words spoken by the Russian leader he appears to have built a hope that the brave men whose cause he abandoned would meet with merciful treatment in consideration of their voluntary surrender. But if he expected that Russian intercession would procure pardon and liberty for those under his command, he deceived himself grievously. They were delivered up to their enemies, and received the hardest measure.



PASKEWITCH.

After the capitulation of Vilagos, the war speedily came to an end. The fortresses of Arad and Peterwardein surrendered. The honveds went home; Kossuth, Bem, Dembinski, and other leaders fled across the frontier into Turkish territory. Komorn held out under Klapka for a month more, but on the 27th of September the brave leader surrendered, on hearing that the Hungarians had ceased to resist; and Paskewitch was able to report to his master, "Hungary lies at your majesty's feet." The Austrians were deeply mortified that Görgey had surrendered, not to them, but to the Russians. Haynau used his authority in the most ruthless manner. The hanging and shooting of prisoners was the order of the day. All the chiefs, whether in the army or the Government, from Count Bathyani downwards, who fell into the hands of the ruthless governor, were put to death; and among the atrocities committed by Haynau, the public flogging of women was the one that excited the greatest detestation in Western Europe. The misery the war had brought on the country was incalculable, and was increased by the heavy taxes imposed and by the confiscation of estates.

Two years afterwards Kossuth visited England, where he was received with enthusiasm. Haynau also came to this country, with a very different result.

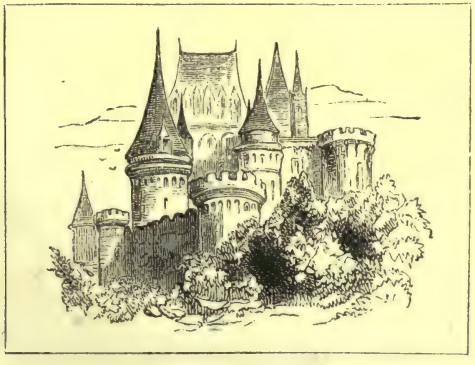
Happening to visit Barclay and Perkins' Brewery, the fact of his presence was bruited about among the draymen, who forthwith pursued the monster with cartwhips. He was compelled to fly for his life, and took the earliest opportunity of leaving the country. Dembinsky died at Paris in 1864.



DEATH OF GENERAL HENSCHI. GÖRGEY AT THE STORMING OF BUDA.

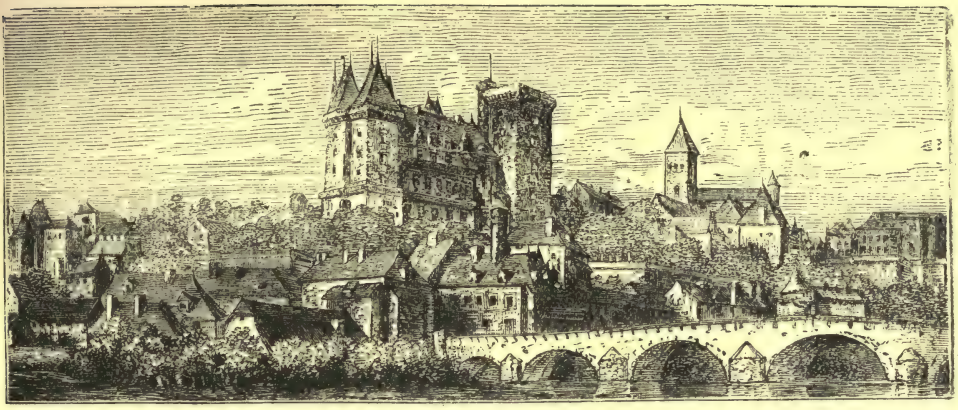
The general result of the turbulent years 1848 and 1849 was to produce a reaction over the whole continent of Europe, and a tendency to revert to the old order of things. The restoration of the Danish power in Schleswig and

Holstein was a decisively retrograde step, a return to the arrangements made by the Congress of Vienna in 1815 and disturbed for a time by the storms of 1848. It was not, therefore, difficult to foresee that a similar course would be followed in settling the affairs of Germany. The "Dresden Conferences," which were held at the beginning of the year 1851, under the auspices of Prince Schwartzenberg and the Saxon minister, Von Manteuffel, led to no result with regard to the organization of the German Union or "Bund," and merely served to illustrate the necessity of restoring the old union in its former shape. Prussia no longer hesitated to put an end to all further constitutional quarrels, by recognising that necessity and acting upon the conviction. That Austria might not have a pretext for insisting upon the demand it had once made, that all its states should be admitted into the German union, Prussia also withdrew the older provinces from the position of members of the union, and sought by re-establishing the former provincial diets to bring back the old condition of things more and more. And now the Governments of the separate States began to relieve themselves from the burdensome laws and arrangements made during the revolutionary years. The "fundamental rights" of the German people were gradually put more and more aside; the constitutions in certain of the states were deprived of their democratic elements, the newspaper press was made harmless by rules and penalties, and all means for strengthening the power of rulers and procuring passive and silent obedience from their subjects, formerly used in the old "police state" Prussia, were restored in increased vigour. Triumphant and hopeful, the missionary preachers of the Jesuits wandered through the German territories, to march in the front as standard bearers of the reaction; and the ultramontane party had the most sanguine expectations, from the time when an amount of independence it had never before possessed was accorded to the Austrian clergy by the suspension of the *Placitum regium*, or "royal permission," and the establishment of the concordat between the imperial Government and the Papal chair. The bishops of the clerical province of the Upper Rhine joined together in a "memorial," in which they made the boldest demands upon the governments, and in the consciousness of their own strength threw down the gauntlet to the temporal power. With the new fundamental principle of statecraft, "solidarity of conservative interests," the second half of the 19th century began.





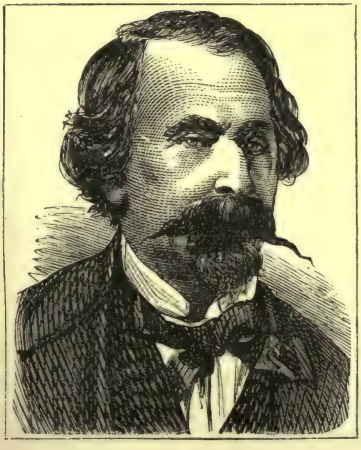
AT SOLFERINO, 1859.



FRANCE; A RETROSPECT.

REPUBLIC.—EMPIRE.—COMMUNISM.

NATURE OF THE SECOND REPUBLIC.—ITS ORIGIN.—ASPIRATIONS OF THE VARIOUS FACTIONS.—THE EXTREME REPUBLICANS.—THE PRESIDENT AND THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.—THE FOUNDATION OF THE SECOND FRENCH EMPIRE.—THE 2ND OF DECEMBER, 1851; THE COUP D'ETAT.—IMPRISONMENT AND TRANSPORTATION OF DEPUTIES.—THE VOTES FOR THE TEN YEARS' PRESIDENCY, AND FOR THE EMPIRE.—THE SYSTEM OF ASSOCIATION, AND THE "INTERNATIONAL."—SOCIALISTIC DOCTRINES AMONG THE WORKING CLASSES.—ENMITY AGAINST PROPERTY AND WEALTH.—IDEA OF OVERTURNING EXISTING INSTITUTIONS.—EFFECTS OF THE COUP D'ETAT ON THE OLD MONARCHIES OF EUROPE.—NAPOLEON III. AND HIS PROMISES.—"THE EMPIRE IS PEACE."—INFLUENCE OF THE PEOPLE ACKNOWLEDGED AS A PRINCIPLE.—EFFORTS OF NAPOLEON III. TO ATTAIN POPULARITY.—ASSISTANCE GIVEN TO THE STRUGGLING CLASSES.—GREAT BUILDING OPERATIONS.—IMPROVEMENTS IN PARIS, ETC.—STATE OF POLITICAL PARTIES.—LEGITIMISTS AND ORLEANISTS.—MONTALEMBERT, GUIZOT, AND THIERS.



THE REPUBLIC AND ITS DANGERS.

EVERY country that had been affected by the revolutionary movements of the eventful years 1848–1850 felt the effects of the upheaval for many years afterwards. The natural result of the feverish activity was an utter and complete exhaustion. In Italy, when this tremendous storm had gone over the land and passed away, the mournful spectacle was beheld of a people that had in vain striven with all its strength to rise up from the death-like political sleep of four centuries, feeling unable to endure continued existence under the old conditions, and unable to create new ones; in Hungary, a down-trodden nation, who had

lost, in the devastating war, the precious guerdon of civilization and of civic freedom immediately after they had been won, and has once more to rise to new forms of life, from the ruins of its former fortune and prosperity; in Germany, a weary nation that has wasted its noblest powers in a vain striving after political unity, an effete political system without any firm and durable foundation based on law and justice, and a ruined prosperity, alike in the State and the domestic household. This unhappiness of the nations was increased by the presence everywhere of an enormous number of fugitives, exiles, and political prisoners; by accusations and political prosecutions without end; an alarming degeneracy in manners and morals, a weakened sense of conscience and honour, and confusion and false teaching in matters affecting the holiest principles of right.

The most dismal picture of this exhaustion and degeneracy was to be seen in France, that storm-tossed country which, in virtue of its position and of its historical and political life, has from the earliest times exerted such a mighty influence upon the fortunes of the various States of Europe. The French nation, so long looked upon as the great promoter, if not the originator, of European culture and State organization, whose impulsive capital its admirers were accustomed to call the metropolis of civilization, was so entirely unhinged and startled from its propriety by the inner convulsions and the violent throes of the revolutionary epoch of 1848, that the far-seeing and well-meaning part of the population was obliged to unite together to defend the first principles of civilization, the security of family life, of property, and of personal liberty, against a degenerate and savage body of proletarians, and to stand together in defence of those things which all nations have with one accord pronounced indispensable, so soon as they had emerged from barbarism. The French revolution of February, 1848, was not the result of the national will, but a happily executed *coup de main* of the Socialist and Republican clubs; but from the want of leading statesmen and administrative power, the poison of Socialism was more and more diffused, and at length the whole body of the State was infected by it. The constituent National Assembly had indeed been chosen by universal suffrage, and emanated from the mighty impulse of the first glow of Republican enthusiasm; but it numbered few Socialistic Republicans among its members, and strongly and decidedly opposed every new movement that arose in favour of the "Red Republic," and armed the Government and the judicial authorities with strong powers, to get rid of the originators and favourers of revolt, the Socialist leaders and elaborators, by arrest, imprisonment, and transportation. This fate overtook various of the heroes of February, such as Blanqui, Albert, Barbés, and others; Louis Blanc and Caussidière withdrew themselves from prosecution only by a prompt escape to England. The declaration of a state of siege, the passing of laws to limit and control the press, political meetings and associations, and the increasing of police vigilance, were the means by which the constituent Assembly endeavoured, in conjunction with the Republican Government, to maintain public safety and order. In May, 1849, the National Assembly came to an end, after completing a democratic Republican constitution with universal suffrage and individual liberty for all in political and religious matters, and after decreeing that there should be only one Chamber, with a responsible president to be elected for a term of four years. It was succeeded by a Legislative Assembly. Here it became at once apparent, by the great number of social democratic deputies, who assumed the old appellation of "The Mountain," that the principles of the "Red Republic" had greatly increased and widened their influence among the

French people within the space of a year. They were certainly still in a minority, but closely associated and at union among themselves, they formed a strong power, which their opponents could only combat by giving up all individual aims either in favour of the Legitimist or the Orleanist party, and



ITALIAN VOLUNTEERS OF 1849.

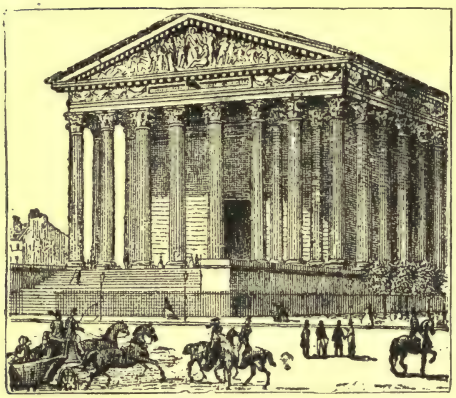
by standing together on all questions brought forward for discussion. Angry that the French Republic had sent a considerable military expedition to Italy for the suppression of the Roman Republic, thus making common cause with the emperor of Austria and that hater of popular liberty, the king of Naples,

the extreme "Mountain" party excited new riots in Paris and Lyons, in the June days of 1849, when the storm of war was raging alike on the Rhine, the Danube, and the Tiber. But these riots were soon put down; and the flight of the leaders, Ledru-Rollin and others, the condemnation of the persons implicated in them to imprisonment and deportation, and the sharpening of the penal laws against sedition, were the immediate and natural consequences of these outbreaks.

From that time the condition of outward order remained unbroken in republican France, even when the police of the capital, at the beginning of 1850, caused all the trees of liberty to be removed that had been planted in the revolutionary period. The Socialists had learned by experience that violent insurrections only led to defeat and the weakening of their powers; they were also aware that their views and principles were spreading; accordingly, for the time, they gave up revolutionary attempts in the hope of gaining the victory in a legal manner, by means of universal suffrage. At every election they held an inspection of their forces, and generally had to record an increase of numbers. Thus they were strong enough, when the occasion arose for an election in the capital, in 1850, to introduce the immoral novelist Eugène Sue as a member. This occurrence caused the National Assembly, on the 31st of May, 1849, to abolish universal suffrage, by the law of electoral reform, to make the suffrage dependent on a domiciliary residence of three years, and other restrictions. At the same time the press was fettered by increasing alike the sums to be deposited as security on the establishment of a paper, the price of the stamp, and the fines to be paid for disregard of the regulations. The control established was increased by the decree that all articles containing political, religious, or philosophical lucubrations, should be signed by their respective authors. The National Assembly had already been induced, on seeing that the teaching profession showed a disposition to advance the views of the Socialists, to bring out a new law of instruction, by which the superintendence over the educational and school system was divided between the Government and the clergy, the chief direction being taken away from the university. In the excited debates on this question, Thiers, the pioneer of Liberalism, was seen working hand in hand with Montalembert, the spokesman of the Ultramontanes. Wherever it was a question of maintaining social order, subordinate political considerations were put in the background. Thus De Tocqueville, the admirer of democracy in America, and the consistent champion of the parliamentary system of government, when he became Minister for Foreign Affairs, organized the French expedition against Rome.

The President, Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, oppressed with a burden of debt, was obliged, in June, 1850, to apply to the National Assembly for an increase of his official salary. But the Assembly would only grant him the desired increase for one year; and by this means embittered the estrangement and rivalry that already existed between the two powers. The palpable striving of the President after an authority that went beyond Republican bounds filled the National Assembly with suspicion, and drove it to opposition. But as it went farther and farther in limiting popular rights and Republican liberty, and also became split up into factions in favour of the various dynastic intrigues, it lost the respect and confidence of the nation.

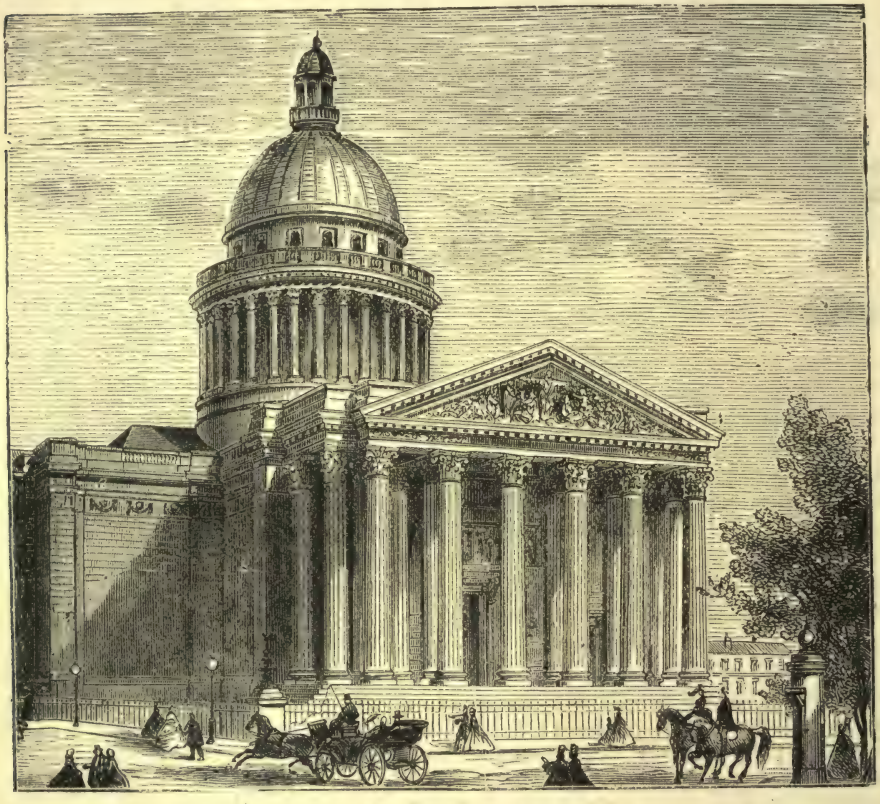
The Foundation of the Second French Empire.



THE indifference and even aversion felt by the nation with regard to the Assembly turned out very advantageously for the President. Louis Napoleon exerted himself to the utmost to render himself popular with the army, and to put the command into the hands of men of whom he would be sure, after getting rid of Changarnier, an independent-spirited man devoted to the Republic. He laboured to fill the offices of prefect and other important places with men devoted to his interests; and in his numerous progresses through the interior he managed to gain the goodwill of the civic authorities, while by liberality and acts of mercy he won the suffrage of the lower classes. He likewise omitted no occasion of putting himself forward in the character of a promoter and protector of national prosperity and of the public rights, attributing the weak points of his government to the irritating opposition of the Assembly, and awakening the slumbering sympathies of the people for the imperial Napoleonic period of the past. By such means he cleared the way for himself to undivided power. The refusal of the disunited and factious Assembly to render possible his re-election in 1852 by the proposed reform of the constitution, hastened the carrying out of a plan he had long cherished in secret. Determined not to part with the power he had acquired, even though he should violate the oath he had sworn to the Republic, he ventured to pursue the policy his uncle had carried out on the 18th Brumaire, 1799. On the 2nd of December, the anniversary of the establishment of the First Empire, and of the victory of Austerlitz, he got rid of the inimical Assembly, by means of the *coup d'état*, by the help of the army that was devoted to him, and seized the supreme power by the overthrow of the parliamentary opposition. The most influential members of the Assembly, among them the generals Changarnier, Lamoricière, and Bedeau, the valiant colonel Charras, the statesmen Thiers, Duvergier de Hauranne, the poet and dramatist Victor Hugo, and the Republicans Lagrange, Raspail, and others, were arrested in the night between the 1st and 2nd of December, and, after a short imprisonment, were for the most part exiled, some for life, others for an indefinite time. This violent proceeding against the representatives of the nation led to new insurrections and barricade fighting in Paris, Lyons, and various towns of the interior; for the Republicans and Socialists flew to arms in defence of the Republican form of government, not so much perhaps from sympathy for the National Assembly, as because they saw themselves deprived of the prospect of getting to power when the new President should be chosen. But the army was in Louis Napoleon's interest, and put down all resistance. The deputy Baudin was shot on the barricade in the Faubourg St. Antoine, while waving in his hand, as a weapon, the decree of the con-

stitution; he was afterwards honoured by the French people as a political martyr.

By a general vote of the people, taken by order of the President, an enormous majority of more than seven millions gave their voices in favour of the new constitution promulgated by the President, and modelled in imitation of the consular system introduced by the first Bonaparte after the 18th of

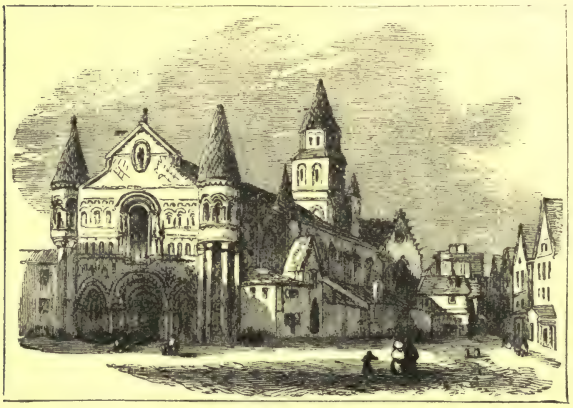


THE PANTHEON, PARIS.

Brumaire, 1799. Louis Napoleon was to have the office of President for ten years, with monarchical power; and the legislative power was to be entrusted, as in the time of the Consulate and Empire, to two Assemblies, a senate and a legislative body, whose authority was restricted until it became no more than nominal. This arrangement was merely transitional, to pave the way for the renewal of the Empire, which was set up a year later, by a still more general vote, on the 1st of December, 1852. The French people, weakened alike in material strength and in intellectual activity, by incessant revolutionary storms, willingly acquiesced in the arbitrary rule which opened to the exhausted country the prospect of durable order and tranquillity, and which, by strict enactments against the daily press and close supervision of social and intellectual life by means of police and soldiers, showed clearly enough that the despotic rule of the great Corsican was to be renewed, but with greater concessions to the Catholic clergy.

Even those citizens who considered a parliamentary system as the true foundation of healthy political life and development in a State, were converted into partisans of the new Empire and of Napoleon III. by the terror of the "red spectre"; but the arbitrary confiscation of the private property and estates of the Orleans family by the Emperor in 1852, a proceeding which seemed based upon Communistic principles, militating against the rights of property, on the largest scale—alarmed many, and raised up enemies against the new ruler and his proceedings. The advocates and partisans of the high-handed *coup d'état*, at whose head was Jean Victor Gilbert Fialin, better known as the Vicomte de Persigny, a partisan of Louis Napoleon ever since the days of the abortive attempts on Strasburg and Boulogne, were rewarded with the most important offices of State under the new government. Such was the end of the second French Republic, whose most zealous and consistent champion, Armand Marrast, died at this time, on the 10th of March, 1852, worn out and heart-broken at the failure of his efforts and aspirations. Five years later he was followed to the grave by the most honest and straightforward of the Republicans, Cavaignac, a true soldier and patriot. In a country where the bonds of family life had long been loosened, where union had been crushed by strict centralization, where there was no natural growth of organization in the life of the State, and where constitution and law had inspired no deep respect in the popular mind, the natural supports of a Republican system were wanting; and thus the Republican constitution was an empty form, without root or the means of healthy growth.

The System of Association, and the "International."

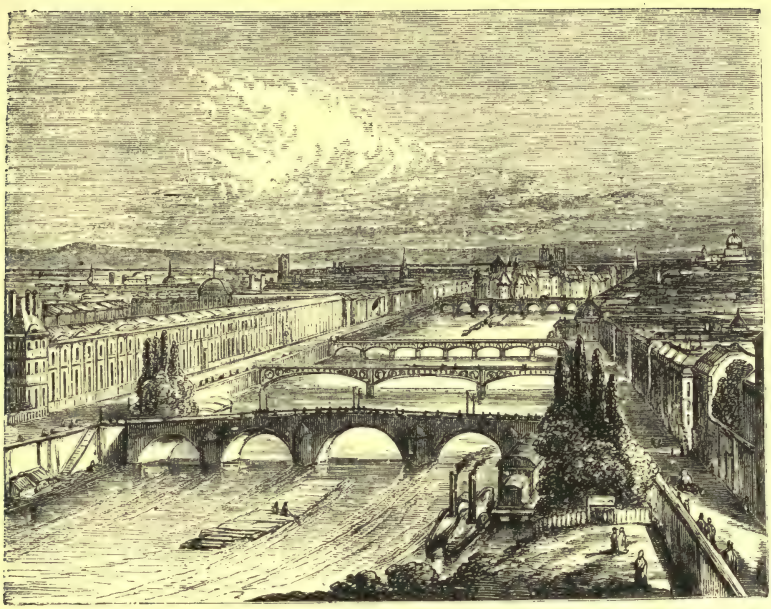


BEFORE entering upon the new period of history which begins with the second Napoleonic Empire in France, it will be requisite to cast a glance upon the further development of the associations and the system of Socialistic reform which had so great an influence in bringing about the events that have just been recorded, and that are equally important with regard to the newest phases of historical life. Socialism was struck to the heart by the crushing defeat of June, and the severe penalties denounced by the National Assembly against revolutionary associations. Some time was required before they could come to any agreement upon the general principles of union. The Empire afforded little opportunity of reconstruction, partly from the strict repressive measures, partly from the care and attention which Napoleon bestowed upon the working classes during the first years of his rule. But the disparity in the position of the various classes gave too firm a hold to Socialist principles and doctrines to enable them to be eradicated. On the contrary, the systems of social reform, which had been almost exclusively developed in France, spread to

other countries, so that questions of political economy and the system of association occupied a very prominent position in public life, in parliamentary debate, and in journalism.

Two opposite directions were soon to be noticed : the conservative one, in which the working classes and small producers sought by economic self-help, and by mutual voluntary support, but with respect for the existing social arrangements and institutions, to raise themselves and to win a better position ; and a revolutionary one, which aimed at giving the lowest class in the community a direct interest in the government of State by means of universal suffrage, and thus was bent upon bringing in the aid of the State for an entire alteration of the social condition of the people. According to the first system, which was especially developed in the great English manufacturing centres, such as Manchester, and found a steady and energetic advocate in the German lawyer and representative of the people, Schulze-Delitzsch, associations were to be formed to furnish, by mutual co-operation and credit, the capital and raw material necessary for the manufacture of products on a large scale ; and thus small proprietors were to be put in a position to compete with the great and opulent capitalists. The assistance of the State was invoked only so far as regarded the complete removal of all that cramped and hindered independent industry and effort. The free-trade system with its principles of unfettered competition, and freedom of contract and of interchange of commodities, appeared a sufficient guarantee for the growing prosperity of all, for increased production, and for the equitable division of the proceeds, always under the condition that no hampering influence or interference of the State were allowed to confine the commercial activity of individuals. Then things would regulate themselves, according to the principles of unchanging and inevitable natural laws.

The other direction, which aimed at procuring for the operative population a share in the national property and in the control of public affairs, through the assistance of the State, had a talented and eloquent exponent with tongue and pen in Ferdinand Lassalle, the son of a Jewish merchant in Breslau, who, after a busy and stormy life, which frequently brought him into conflict with the law, met with an early death in a duel with a Pole at Geneva. His ideas found great acceptance in the ranks of the foreign working men, who still look upon him as the gifted standard-bearer of the social community. Independent of both these directions, but with tendencies resembling those of Lassalle's followers, there arose in the year 1862, after a number of French workmen had been sent by Napoleon III. to the second great Exhibition in London, the "International League," or, as it was briefly called, the "International," a workmen's union which was soon to assume formidable dimensions. Through the activity of Republican fugitives and demagogues, then resident in London, a convention of social democrats and leaders of workmen of different countries took place ; and its effect was to produce an interchange of views, and an agreement upon certain principles. If the working classes could unite in a common striving, and the proletarians generally would but agree on a central authority and a united plan of action, much could be achieved. The thought was obvious enough, but the execution was difficult.



PARIS: THE SEINE BRIDGES.

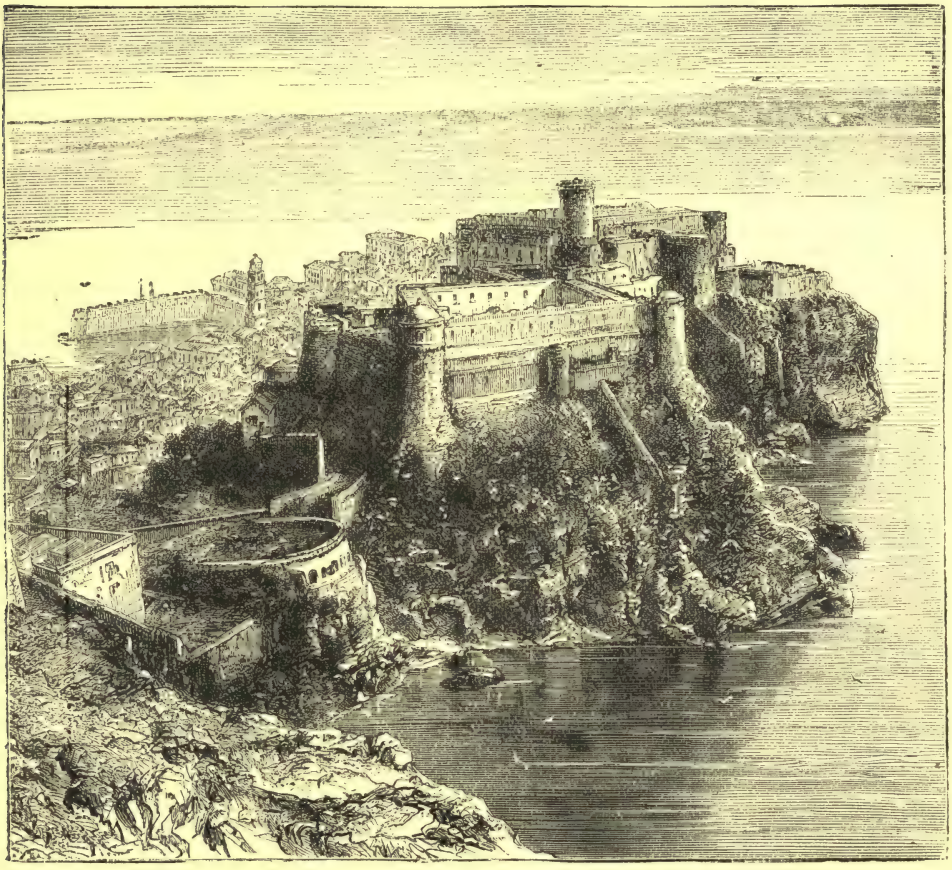
ORGANIZATION OF THE "INTERNATIONAL."



FOR the organization of such a proletarian state pecuniary means, intellectual capacity, and knowledge and appreciation of political and social conditions were necessary; but how could these conditions be obtained among a class of people destitute, with a few exceptions, of all higher education, and living from hand to mouth? But in spite of all difficulties the organization was undertaken. At a meeting in St. Martin's Hall, in London, on the 28th of September, 1864, in which nearly all the nations of Europe were represented by delegates, the "International Workman's Union" was inaugurated; and the shoe manufacturer, George Odger, with two associates, Cremer and Wheeler, became its manager. Some French workmen who had taken a prominent part in the Parisian Commune, distinguished themselves by their fiery zeal in expanding and propagating this new doctrine of the working man. The international league was to enter into alliance with the working men's associations throughout the whole of Europe and North America, admitting them to fellowship, without putting an end to their separate and independent existence. It was to be a kind of universal organ for the general interests of the workmen, and to serve as a standard for the others. Every year an international congress was to be held, in which the president and the members of the central council in London were to be chosen, and

the chief measures were to be settled. A common treasury, formed from the settled contributions of all the members, was to supply the funds for the organization, the travelling agents, and the various expenses, in which the supporting and encouragement of workmen's "strikes" figured prominently. The members of this fraternity could scarcely be blamed for endeavouring by an association of this kind to improve their position and advance their common interests; but it soon became manifest that striking for higher wages formed a somewhat doubtful palliative for the workman's woes, inasmuch as it had a tendency to produce a general advance in the prices of commodities; nor, in the ordinary course of things, was much to be hoped or to be feared from such a multiform and widespread organization, with a directing body destitute of power and authority, and wanting in union, and in experience and knowledge of the world. The evil consisted in the doctrines, and in the tendency that gradually came from their concealment. Had the "International" confined itself to the attainment of economical objects, and the improvement of the workman's position, it would have brought no blame to the operative and proletarian class; but its true meaning was warfare against capital, against inherited property, against the advantages enjoyed by intelligence and education; instead of founding society upon humanity and self-restraint, this principle destroys all ideas of piety, of mutual confidence, of peaceful community, by sowing hatred between the possessor and the working man, and rousing all the evil spirits of envy, mistrust, and suspicion. Before the spring of 1871, the leaders of the International could not be blamed if they endeavoured, by great deeds of violence or by conspiracies, forcibly to overthrow the established order of things in Church and State. According to their system, monarchical Governments in absolute or constitutional form, with their more or less aristocratic foundations, and the structure of the Church with papacy and hierarchy, were nothing but untruth and false appearance, arbitrary human institutions built up on cunning force and deception, that would crumble into a heap of ruin when once their own Socialistic world had asserted itself and was estimated at its true value. Their great object was, therefore, to gain over the entire working population, the proletariat of all countries, to a belief in their Socialistic doctrines on economical material grounds, to the new Jacobinism of liberty, equality, and fraternity, and to unite them into a bond of many millions of men, with a directing central council and a common fund, for which purpose fitting persons were chosen as wandering agitators and orators, for all lands and nations. To hinder those they called the "people" from being further used up by the capitalists, manufacturers, and landed proprietors, the traders and aristocracy, their doctrines declared that all private property and all hereditary rights must be abolished; and the organization of labour, and the profit that arose from it, must be regulated anew upon a fresh basis. This could only be brought about if the State itself took up this new order of things, and the division of all the national property acquired by labour and production; and this again could only come to pass if the proletariat bore rule, if the power of the State were not given to a few classes, predominating by force of birth, wealth, and intelligence, but to the "people" who formed the majority; that is to say, to the working and serving fourth estate. Thus the social revolution, for the removal of the preponderating power of the proprietors and the educated men, was the highest aim and the leading object of the International League. Accordingly, all the institutions on which human and social inequality depends would have to be destroyed, especially the Christian faith and the

declared Divine law that serves as a support to those institutions; and a new code of human science and morals, adapted to the equality and social fraternity of all mankind, must be inaugurated. The new prophets, therefore, wished not only to set aside all existing ordinances as the productions of



CITADEL OF GAETA.

favoured classes of men and of higher castes, but to administer a corrective to nature itself for having distributed its favours unequally. When these and similar doctrines were promulgated at the congresses of the International, which were held in three consecutive years in Geneva, Lausanne, and Brussels, the world looked with tolerable indifference upon the assembly brought together from all lands and nations. Such dreams and phantoms, such visionary teachings and views had in bold and new times appeared so frequently, that it was thought the task of combating them might be left to the sane understanding of sensible people. Men saw in these ideas the last traces of a cosmopolitan tendency, that could strike no root in the present. Apart from the negation of the established rules in religion, State economy, and civil ordinances, and from "Nihilist" views, the rule of political economy laid down by the cleverest writer on the system, Marx, originated in such unsound premises, that its refutation, like that of the idea of French national

workshops in 1848, could be expected from their own fall; for while the system sets up human labour as the sole standard of value, it leaves mental activity, the finer tissue of industrial life, entirely out of the reckoning, or undervalues it. Such exploded theories, it was supposed, would be destroyed by the force of healthy judgment, by the natural feelings of morality and right, and by the power of existing institutions. But sufficient stress was not laid upon two points: firstly, that such doctrines have a seductive charm for uneducated minds little used to reflection and ignorant of the real state of things in the world, however little there may be of truth in the sophistical tirades; and secondly, that in great political and warlike occurrences a state of things may arise, in moments of violent perturbation, in which the revolutionary spirit of Socialism may find an opportunity of displaying its destructive force. This force will increase the more the objects of the International, to bind the working population of all lands as with an electric chain, and to set them simultaneously in motion, win strength and consistency. The civil conflict between the Paris "Commune" and the French National Government in Versailles, which put the world in alarm, in the spring of 1871, is a tragic example, showing to what a pitch of savagery and to what a fury of destruction the elementary powers of Socialism may rise, when they acquire even a temporary ascendency.

Effects of the Coup d'État of the 2nd of December.



THE *coup d'état* of December, 1852, was the last and decisive victory of monarchical despotism over the parliamentary system of State rule. Since then, much has been destroyed that had been gained by much labour and by ardent conflict; much, on the other hand, that had been regarded as dead and buried has risen again to power. In France, as in most of the States of the European continent, the doctrine which the Emperor Severus once impressed upon his son Caracalla, that only the military class should be honoured and favoured, while all the rest should be accounted as nothing, was once more brought forward in its full significance. The hierarchy, intent upon checking the free flight of thought, and to fold men's minds in the secure keeping of the Church, procured concordats, by means of which the clergy received the dominion over the people, and the bishops were enabled to exercise a weakening effect on the executive departments in the various principalities, while the dynasties found that they had a foreign co-regent in the person of the Pope. The nobility took advantage of the tide of reaction to re-establish themselves firmly on the privileges that had been so roughly shaken, to combat the principle of the equality of all citizens before the law, and to build up anew the old privileges of caste as a dam against the advancing spirit of the century. Many "visionary blossoms" dropped from the tree in their immaturity, and many cherished hopes sank unfulfilled into the grave; angry with the present and despairing of the future, thousands upon thousands turned their backs upon their homes,

and sought in the New World the happiness of freedom. But though the prospect appeared sufficiently gloomy, the thought that no true benefit, no really healthy thought that has sprung from good ground is ever entirely lost to humanity, and that no nation having the power of political vitality will allow itself to be permanently deprived of what it has gained by painful and enduring effort, gradually diffused hope, cheerfulness, and renewed courage; and the evidences that in the middle classes virtue, honesty, and morality continued in undiminished strength, gave confidence to the discouraged. "We will not despair," wrote the patriotic Arndt; "time will clear the way for the fatherland, in spite of all diplomatic quick-set hedges and prowling birds of night." No human wisdom had proved sufficient to find the safe path through the stormy days of the past, no holy right had remained intact, no sworn treaty been kept free from the stain of perjury; and thus it came that the people turned more than ever to the heavenly Comforter, and sought help, consolation, and patience at the throne of Him who will not break the bruised reed or quench the smoking flax.

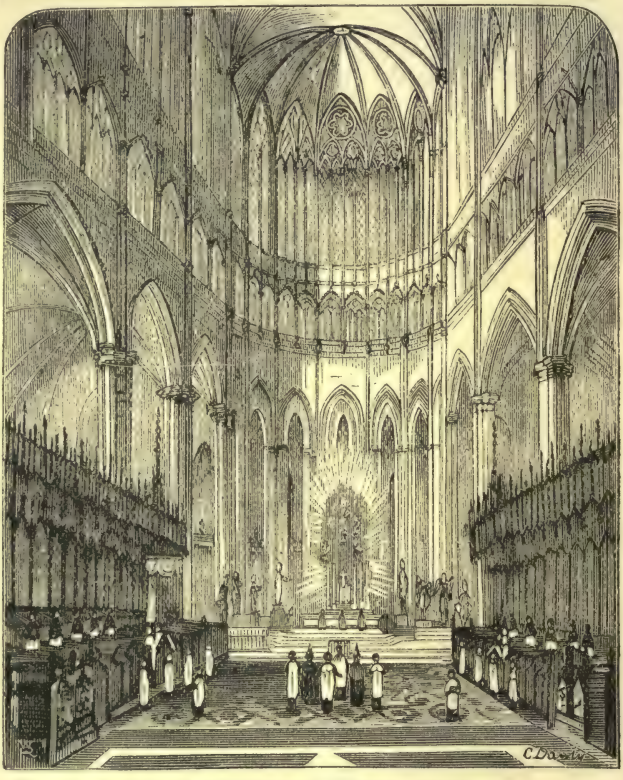
The new Napoleon and his Promises.



ONE OF THE "CENT GARDES."

THE setting up of the new Empire in France filled the reactionary and conservative party with new confidence. The fear of revolution seemed to be put aside by it for some time; and the high-born world could give itself up without fear to social enjoyment and pleasure. The different Governments at first behaved with a certain reticence, for they feared that the third Napoleon might in the inner organization of his Empire, in his method of rule, and in his foreign policy, follow the course of his uncle, and revive the "Napoleonic ideas" and traditions. But gradually they became more and more impressed with the hope that the words were sincere that he had spoken at Bordeaux during his first journey, when he said, "France wishes for peace; and when France is satisfied, the world is quiet. Fame may be transferred as an inheritance, but not war." It also came to be believed that his favourite motto, "The Empire is peace," expressed his real sentiments. Riper in years than his mighty uncle had been, in the plenitude of his power, the nephew avoided the stormy career of the first Napoleon; and the heavy trials and experiences through which he had passed in his youth had taught him betimes to control his passions, to hide his thoughts and plans in his own breast, or to wrap them inexplicably in oracular ambiguous expressions with diplomatic art; but he did not wish to become a "Napoleon of Peace," as his predecessor Louis

Philippe had loved to be called. The "great nation" had felt itself wounded in its pride, when it had been no longer able to exert a preponderating influence, or give the decisive impulse to the course of affairs as in the glorious days of old. This national impulse was understood and appreciated



AMIENS CATHEDRAL.

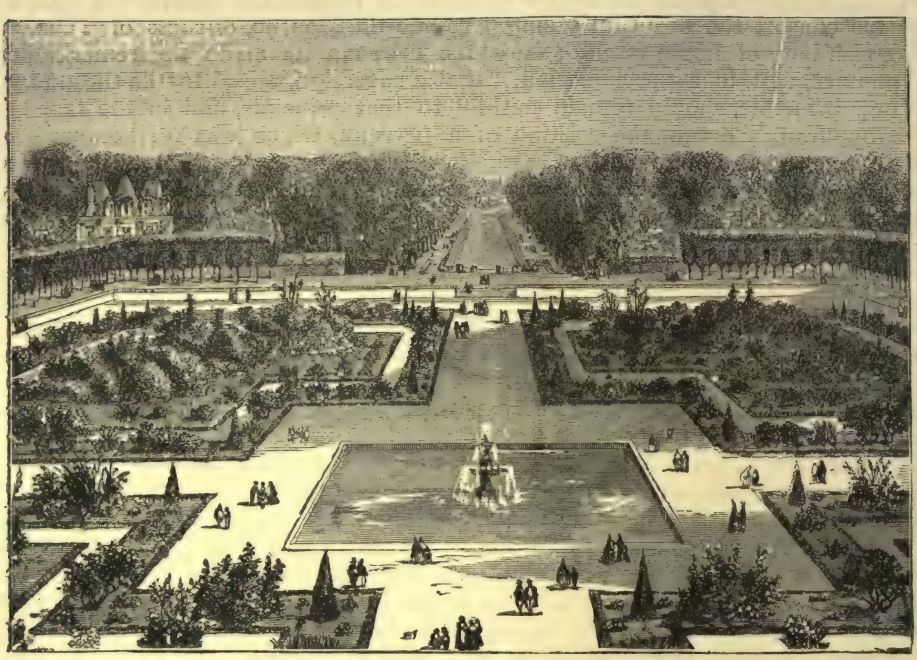
by Napoleon III. By giving to the chivalrous and military propensities that lie deep in the character of the Frenchman full scope to unfold themselves, and by flattering the love of glory and fame, and its companion, vanity, he awakened the slumbering sympathies for the Bonaparte dynasty, consolidated his throne, and provided a safety-valve for the volcanic forces that seethed within the realm. Napoleon carried out an active policy; and though he disclaimed all intention of conquest in his interventions, and represented the warlike undertakings of the French as a "civilizing mission"—a declaration that certainly met with little credence in the world, and was not in all cases verified—he certainly propitiated the French nation, and dissipated the apprehensions of foreign powers.

The striving of his uncle to win a position among the legitimate ruling houses of Europe, and cause the obscurity of his origin to be forgotten by matrimonial alliances with the ancient sovereign dynasties, had borne no good fruit. The nephew avoided this snare; and angry at the reluctance shown by the old courts to admit him as a "brother," he sought the con-

firmation of his power in the popular will, and voluntarily abandoned the old feudal idea of legitimacy, and of a monarchy "by the grace of God." Unsuccessful in the offer he made for the hand of Charlotte, the granddaughter of the widowed grand duchess Stephanie of Baden, his relative, he chose as his consort the beautiful young Eugénie de Montijo, duchess of Téba, a Spanish lady of noble family; on which occasion he made the remarkable announcement, in a proclamation, "that a sovereign, raised to the throne by a new principle, should remain faithful to that principle, and in the face of Europe frankly accept the position of a parvenu, which was an honourable title, when it was obtained by the public suffrage of a great people. Dynastic alliances only gave rise to deceptive guarantees, and set up family interests in the place of national interests. For seventy years all princes' daughters married to rulers of France had been unfortunate; only one, Josephine, was remembered with affection by the French people, and she was not born of a royal house."

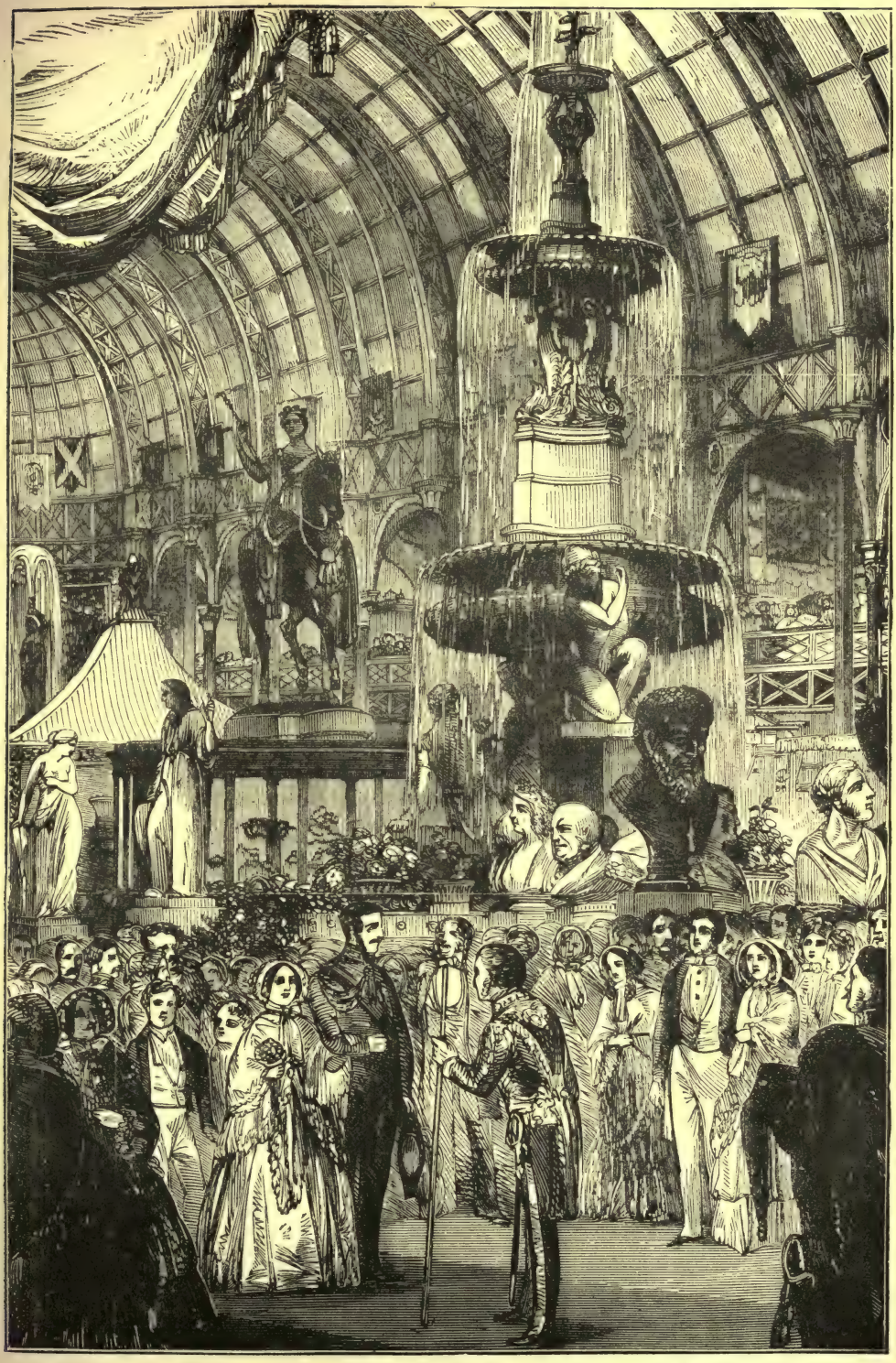
How greatly the astute ruler had conciliated the favour and affection of the people by this step was shown by the universal joy at the marriage festivities, January 30th, 1853, and again, three years later, at the birth of the Prince Imperial, on the 16th of March, 1856. The Emperor showed his sense of this loyal feeling by an act of grace: he allowed all exiles and fugitives who promised obedience to his government, to return freely to France, and pardoned many transported offenders. He endeavoured to obtain further recognition for the principle of the intervention of the people in the choice of rulers, ascertaining the will of the nation by means of a vote. Thus we shall see how, at a later period, he introduced the annexation of Savoy and Nice to France by a canvass of the people's votes; and how in Mexico he based the erection of an empire on the recorded popular will; and in Italy, again, how the declarations of the inhabitants were recognised as a valid reason for the incorporation of the smaller duchies in the Italian kingdom; in the quarrel concerning the succession in Schleswig-Holstein he also recommended the same proceeding. Though the taking of these votes was generally only an empty form, by which the popular will could not be in reality expressed, the principle of the popular vote was useful in shaking the belief in the old dogma of legitimacy, according to which nations and States were looked upon as the property of certain dynasties, while it procured for the principle of the sovereignty of the people admission under a new form in European politics. The new Emperor bestowed much care and attention on social questions. We have seen that the revolutionary tempests of 1848 and 1849 had their chief source in the misunderstanding between the operative and propertied classes. Too sagacious and far-seeing to attempt to realize Socialistic and Communistic dreams, or to attempt an adjustment of differences by a forcible attack on property, he yet recognised the necessity of giving some assistance to the working class and protecting its members from poverty and wretchedness. In the year 1853, in consequence of a bad harvest, a dearth occurred; a "bakery fund" was organized in Paris, so that, by means of contributions made by the city, bread should be sold at a moderate price. By means of embankments, dams, and similar structures along the rivers, the Emperor endeavoured to combat the disastrous floods that frequently occurred in the Rhone. Streets, bridges, and railways increased, and facilitated the internal traffic. Magnificent buildings were erected by the State and by the towns; and these undertakings gave remunerative employment to all classes of the community. Through the ceaseless activity of the prefect Haussmann, Paris assumed an

entirely new aspect; the narrow lanes were pulled down; and the erection of new houses and streets, on the one hand, gave the people more wholesome dwellings, and, on the other, cleared away the strongholds of revolt and revo-



FONTAINEBLEAU.—THE GEOMETRICAL GARDEN.

lution. The Great Exhibition, based on that of London, and opened in Paris in May, 1854, and the commercial treaties with various nations, improved and strengthened the industrial life of the country, and created an increased demand for French goods beyond the frontier. In direct contrast to the policy of his uncle, who had fettered trade and industry by his Continental System, Napoleon III. loosened the bonds of the old prohibitive system in France, and, by decreasing customs, duties, and tolls, took a long step to the free-trade policy towards which all statesmanship is now tending. The favour accorded to joint stock companies and credit associations was also given with the view of calling forth renewed industry and activity; but it was attended with one great disadvantage—namely, that it brought the rage for speculation and share-gambling to a dangerous height; so that all classes were infected with the greed for making profit without labour; and public undertakings increased to an enormous extent, and undermined commercial confidence. The expenses of the State were far heavier than before; and as the deficit could only be met by new loans, the science of financing and speculation attained a dangerous prominence. Every political event influenced the value of public securities; and thus the world was kept in a state of continual and feverish excitement; and it became not unusual to see a millionaire standing at the bar as a criminal. The State on two occasions adopted the method of raising national loans; but this expedient only formed a temporary palliative, and the "Bourse" still remained paramount. The only great effect produced by the national loan was seen in the numbers of



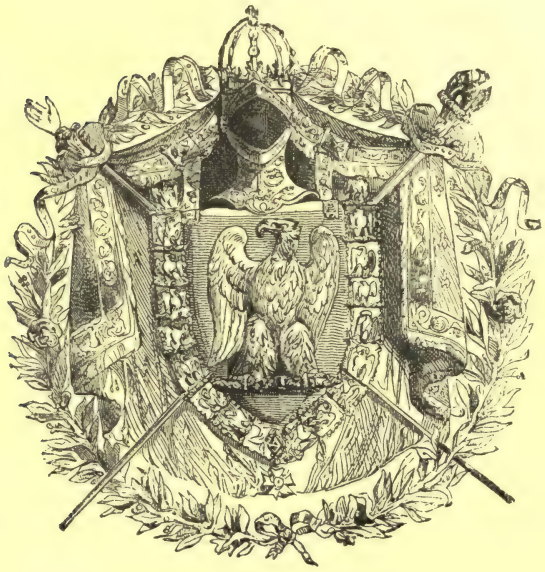
OPENING OF THE FIRST GREAT EXHIBITION BY QUEEN VICTORIA, MAY 1ST, 1851.

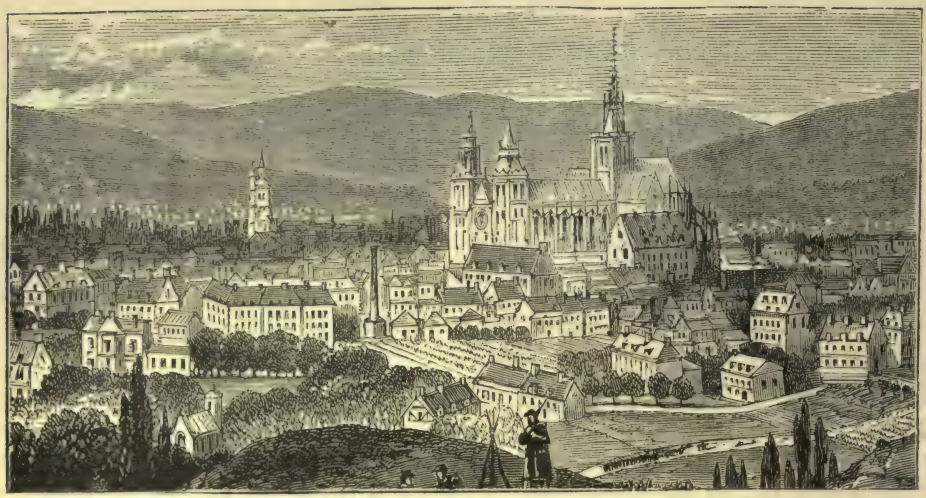


THIERS.

people who rushed to take shares in it, which was a proof that the Emperor's government had inspired great confidence among the masses. But though Napoleon III. became more and more firmly established among his people, he had a great number of enemies beyond the frontiers. The Legitimists persisted in keeping aloof, though the prospects of a restoration of the direct line of kings became fainter and fainter; for the Comte de Chambord, the head of the Legitimist faction, a man of a passive and dreamy character, was childless. The attempt at a "fusion" of the Legitimist and the Orleans party did not meet with a ready acceptance from either side, though few of the Orleanists attached themselves heartily to the new rule. The example of La Roche-Jacquelin, who, though a member of an ultra Legitimist family, frankly accepted the Second Empire, remained an exception; and the multifarious activity of Count Montalembert wavered to and fro on all questions of politics, as his chief interest was devoted to ecclesiastical things, and to the diffusion of Ultramontane views. In this respect he was in accord with the Empress Eugénie; and Napoleon himself, though in ecclesiastical matters he was as indifferent as his uncle, willingly came forward as the protector of the Romish chair, for by so doing he attached the clergy and the agricultural

population to his interests. But even Montalembert found himself compelled, shortly before his death, in 1870, to join with the Opposition, in protesting against the growing influence of Jesuitism and the dogma of papal infallibility. Of the Orleanist chiefs, Guizot went into a literary retirement, seeking to enlighten the world in a series of historical works concerning himself and his times, while he also gave himself up to his religious "Meditations," and as a champion of Calvinistic orthodoxy invoked the assistance of the secular arm against free Biblical investigation; and Thiers, who was looked upon as a friend by the Imperial family, on the strength of his historical work on the Consulate and the First Empire, after some years of silence again took part in public life, and displayed flashes of his spirit in the parliamentary opposition; while, at the same time, in his resistance to the foreign policy of the Emperor, he showed how difficult it is, even for the cleverest statesman, to emancipate himself in later years from the traditions of the past, and to be just towards new and broader views and principles, in accordance with popular rights. The idea of founding a nation's greatness on the weakening of its neighbours, and the practice of limiting the commercial intercourse of countries by protective duties, must be looked upon as exploded fallacies.





RUSSIA AND POLAND.

THE LAST POLISH INSURRECTION.

CONCILIATORY POLICY OF ALEXANDER II.—EXCITEMENT IN POLAND.—INFLAMMATORY MATERIALS IN THE STATE.—INFLUENCE OF THE CLERGY.—DEMONSTRATIONS AND POPULAR TUMULTS IN WARSAW.—ENCOUNTERS WITH THE MILITARY.—EFFORTS AT CONCILIATION.—MARTIAL LAW PROCLAIMED BY GORTSCHAKOFF, THE GOVERNOR.—THE GRAND DUKE CONSTANTINE.—THE LAW OF CONSCRIPTION ENFORCED.—OUTBREAK OF THE INSURRECTION.—ATTEMPTED INTERVENTION OF THE GREAT POWERS.—TERMINATION OF THE NATIONAL STRUGGLE IN POLAND.—HOPELESSNESS OF THE STRUGGLE.—THE RUSSIAN POLICY OF UNIFORMITY.—THE EMPEROR'S POPULARITY DESTROYED.—ATTEMPT ON HIS LIFE IN PARIS.



SYMPTOMS OF DISCONTENT IN POLAND.

THE Emperor Alexander endeavoured to carry out his policy of conciliation especially by uniformly displaying a tolerant temper in Church matters. At his command the Government entered into important negotiations with Rome, with regard to the vacant bishoprics. In spite of all this, however, a turbulent and angry feeling was apparent among the Poles; and this feeling constantly increased, and gave rise, in 1859, to apprehensions of a breach of the peace. It had not escaped the notice of the Polish people that Russia had been



RUSSIAN PRIEST AND ACOLYTES.

heavily defeated in the Crimea; while, therefore, the Polish national party indulged in the hope that in the event of an insurrection the Russians would not be able to assert themselves with their former power, events in Italy, where a popular rising had effected the liberation and union of the nation, and the principle of national sovereignty which had been proclaimed in France, exercised an important influence on the minds of the people, and awakened all their old proud memories of independence and the slumbering aspirations for renewed liberty and strength. The national feeling and tendencies, however, were manifested in very different ways. While the country population, distrustful of the nobility, held aloof from the whole movement, the national party found their supporters and adherents chiefly among the citizens of the old towns and especially of the capital, Warsaw, among the cultured and educated youth, who believed the safety and well-being of their country to be dependent on the restoring of an ideal past; among a fanatical and bigoted priesthood, who were intent on directing the patriotic aspirations to religious and ecclesiastical aims; and among the malcontent Jews, who hoped to obtain the civil equality which the Russian Government persisted in refusing them. That nothing of importance was effected by a party composed of such incongruous elements may easily be imagined; and though the expression of the revolutionary movement did not result, as formerly, in still greater slavery, this was to be ascribed less to the intervention of the French Government, or to the loud and impressive voice of England, than to the just and conciliatory temper of the Russian Emperor, who did not visit upon the whole nation the turbulent outbreaks of a restricted faction headed by a few individuals, and was not inclined to judge too severely the struggles of an unhappy nation vainly striving for the fulfilment of an idea of reunion and reconstruction that had become altogether vain and chimerical.

Demonstrations and Popular Tumults in Warsaw.



ALREADY in the autumn of 1868, when the Sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia held a meeting at Warsaw, an uneasy temper was apparent. On the 29th of November, the anniversary of the outbreak of the revolution of 1830, a mournful celebration took place in the Carmelite Church which had been used as a place of confinement for revolted Poles, when the liberation of the fatherland from the yoke of tyranny was devoutly prayed for, and a song was sung which became a national Polish hymn, and was promptly forbidden. A still more impressive demonstration took place on the 25th of February, 1861, the anniversary of the battle of Grochow, when an immense procession filed through the streets to the palace of the Governor, where the members of the Agricultural Union of the whole kingdom united together in a general assembly to consider the ways and means of most appropriately transforming the leasehold estates paying hereditary rent into freehold properties; their progress was, however, cut short by the intervention of a division of the gendarmerie, who charged the people and dispersed them at the point of the bayonet.

Another struggle with the military took place on the evening of the 27th of February, on the occasion of a funeral procession, in honour of those who had fallen in the late street fight; and this was attended with even more

disastrous consequences. Prince Gortschakoff, however, promised in a proclamation that a judicial investigation should take place of the circumstances attending the deaths of those who had been slain; and an address was drawn up to the Emperor, in which it was declared that the recent events were not mere passing ebullitions of feeling on the part of certain classes of the people, but were indications of the powerful and unanimous, though



COSTUMES OF SOUTHERN RUSSIA.—LADY AND HER ATTENDANT.

repressed, feeling, and of the unsatisfied longings of the country generally. On the 26th of March a ukase appeared, in which the Poles were promised the foundation of a separate and independent department for public worship and education, under the control of the Polish Margrave Alexander Wielopolski, an exiled patriot,—who in the year 1831 had been the ambassador of the revolutionary Polish government in London,—as well as the establish-

ment of a Polish Council of State and the introduction of a system under which representatives of communities, districts, and governmental departments should be elected. But the proffered gifts no longer satisfied the increasing claims. The restoration of the ancient Polish republic in its entirety, and with complete national independence, was the aim of the patriots. The Government made every effort to repress the revolutionary tendencies, but the result was only a general increase of excitement. A procession was made to the graves of the martyrs who had fallen in February; and when Prince Gortschakoff summoned the military to put down the gathering, the people refused to disperse, and, after a little consideration, one battalion after another began to retire, followed by the scornful laughter of the assembled crowd. This occurrence increased the confidence of the Poles; they believed they had gained a victory over the Government; and towards evening on the following day large masses of people collected before the castle and in the neighbouring streets, without allowing themselves to be intimidated by the troops. At last, however, after considerable delay and the display of much forbearance, the soldiers received the command to fire upon the people, and a fearful struggle ensued, in which more than thirty persons were slain and a great number wounded. The city was thereupon placed almost in a state of siege; all demonstrations were forbidden, and the people were not allowed to put on mourning for their fallen relatives.

Wielopolski and the Revolutionary Party.



THE national movement, however, was only repressed, and not stamped out by such measures as these. On the 22nd of April Wielopolski found himself compelled to issue a decree against the agitations of the Polish priests. In this manifesto he accused them of "exciting and fostering open hatred among the nation towards the Government." In vain did the Governor request the Archbishop of Warsaw to address a soothing and deprecatory pastoral letter to the clergy. The message of reconciliation was not received; on the contrary, the clergy declared that they would no longer accept with sinful acquiescence and indifference such decrees as constituted an injury to the holy rights of the Church. In spite of the prohibition, national religious songs, in which Heaven was petitioned to speed the restoration of Poland, were sung in the churches, and met with no opposition from the clergy. At last Count Lambert, the successor of Gortschakoff as Governor in Warsaw, proceeded to energetic measures of repression. Four days after the funeral of the Archbishop, Fialkonski of Warsaw, on the 14th of October, 1861, at which disastrous demonstrations again took place, he proclaimed martial law over the whole kingdom of Poland, forbade the singing of national songs and every kind of national and political manifestation. As this order was disregarded on the following day, when the memorial funeral ceremonies in honour of Kosciuszko took place, soldiers took up their position at the doors of the crowded

churches, and arrested the people as they began to come out. On discovering this, the remainder of the congregations refused to quit the churches, and thousands stayed the whole night through in the sacred edifices, until they were expelled in the morning by the military. Count Lambert shortly afterwards was succeeded in his post by General Luders, who intensified the measures of repression in force against the inhabitants, and imprisoned many most distinguished men.



THE GRAND DUKE CONSTANTINE.

Unfavourable as were such conditions for the establishment of the projected reforms, yet the Emperor did not lose sight of the aim he had in view. He appointed his brother, the Grand Duke Constantine, as his representative, and as Governor in Poland ; and, with him, installed Wielopolski as chief of the civil department, June, 1862 ; elective municipal and district councils were established, and men of Polish nationality were elected as repre-

sentatives; the system of education was placed on a more national footing; the University of Warsaw was re-organized on a fresh basis; and the Jews were placed on an equal footing with their Christian fellow-subjects. Although these benefits were accepted by the more patriotic portion of the nation, the great mass of the town populations remained under the influence of a secret conspiracy, the leaders of which kept the whole kingdom in a state of terrorism; and many acts of violence, as well as murderous attacks on Luders, the Grand Duke himself, and Wielopolski, together with other manifestations, afforded gloomy symptoms of the revolutionary temper prevailing among the lower strata of society.

The Russian Government was compelled to try every available method for overcoming the national excitement; and the militia, which had fallen into disuse for many years, was again summoned, in the year 1863, as a means of repressing the popular violence. The news of this proceeding plunged Warsaw into the greatest consternation, and the magistrates addressed a representation to the Grand Duke, begging that this extraordinary measure might not be carried out. The appeal was utterly disregarded. The Government



RUSSIAN PEASANTS.

persisted in its scheme, and with the new year the levying was to commence. This measure, bitterly unpopular in itself, was carried out with highly injudicious severity. On the appointed night, the 14th of January, the soldiers forced their way into the houses, and carried off by violence the men who had been designated for the conscription. Many, however, had been able to escape. The terror and dismay which now spread throughout the land increased the number of fugitives and emigrants. The time had arrived when the leaders of the revolutionary party judged that they might proceed to open rebellion. Accordingly they constituted themselves into a provisional National Government; they collected together all the scattered troops of fugitives, and attacked the troops of the enemy in several places.

Thus the war between Russia and Poland was fairly commenced; and however much the other European nations were occupied with their own affairs, the general attention could not fail to be directed towards the country of the Vistula, for whose unhappy fate public sympathy had so often been excited. In England and France public opinion manifested itself so openly

and so strongly in favour of a nation which had rallied its last powers for a gigantic conflict with its powerful neighbour, that the two Governments could not avoid intervention on behalf of the feeble country, especially as the two other Powers engaged were making warlike preparations on the neighbouring frontiers, and Prussia was preparing to make common cause with Russia. On the 8th of February both Powers entered into a secret convention with regard to the repression of the Polish insurrection. This agreement, however, when the Parliament at Berlin and public opinion loudly declared against it, remained a "dead letter." It was feared that the Emperor of France would avail himself of the opportunity and interfere, and bring the dispute before the forum of European politics. After lengthy negotiations, the three Powers united in expressing to the cabinet of St. Petersburg their desire that affairs should be arranged in such a manner "that peace might again be restored to the Polish nation, and established upon a durable foundation." When Prince Gortschakoff, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, declared that the Russian Government was in no way disinclined to consent to an understanding on the basis of the treaties, but at the same time intimated "that the Polish insurrection was only to be ascribed to the continual machinations of the widespread cosmopolitan revolutionary party, and that the Powers themselves would most contribute to the desired pacification of Poland if they would close these sources of disaffection," the three Powers contented themselves with the presentation of six demands, some of which the Russian Government had already granted, while it was prepared also to accede to the others.

Termination of the National Struggle in Poland.

WHEN the despatches reached St. Petersburg, the insurrection was already dwindling away. The appeal of the "National Government" to the peasantry had had no successful result, and instead of a national army, the insurgents could only gather together a few regiments, with which they surprised isolated detachments of the Russian forces, but were unable to resist the more numerous bodies of their opponents in open battle. General Mieroslawski, the well-known adventurer of the revolutionary period of 1848 and 1849, was appointed dictator by the National Government, but a few days later suffered a defeat from the Russians, and made his escape across the Prussian frontier. Langiewicz, the next leader of the insurgents, after a few successful encounters with the Russians, found himself compelled, on account of the dissensions among his troops, to make his escape to Austrian territory, where he was recognised and placed under official supervision, until he ultimately obtained permission to proceed to Switzerland. But though the National Government was not able to place a considerable army in the field, it was still in a position to keep the whole kingdom in a state of disquietude and terror. The demand made by the Archbishop Felinski of Warsaw to the Emperor in March, "that he would make Poland into an independent nation, which should only be united with Russia by the bond of dynasty," was the aim and object of the whole party; and this secret National Government, whose members and

headquarters remained undiscovered by the Russians in spite of all their efforts, developed an activity, a vigour, and an organization, which excited the astonishment of the world. It issued oppressive laws and ordinances, established throughout the country its own system of taxation, and forbade any payment of taxes to the Russian authorities. It also established in



EASTER IN RUSSIA.—SALUTING A PROCESSION.

Warsaw and the provincial towns revolutionary tribunals, to punish all actions "which were antagonistic to the revolutionary tendency, and likely to be injurious to the national cause." Thus the two Governments stood opposed to one another,—the one relying on open force, the other on the power of terrorism.

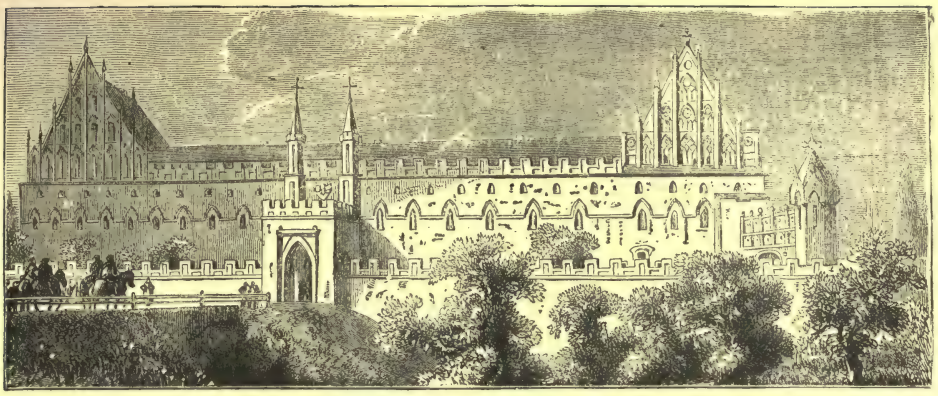
Nevertheless, the complete suppression of the Polish rebellion was only a question of time; for although the guerilla warfare was still continued in various places, and although frequent bloody encounters took place between the Russian troops and the bands of insurgents, the St. Petersburg Cabinet was so confident of a speedy victory in July, that it refused any further intervention on the part of the Powers associated in the Treaty of Vienna, and declared that the affairs of Poland were the business only of the Governments whose interests were immediately concerned. Thus no other course remained to the Powers but to leave Russia in peaceful possession, without further concerning themselves about the Polish question, or drawing a sword in defence of Polish nationality. The French Emperor alone declared, at the opening of the legislative session in October, 1863, that the treaties of 1815 had ceased to exist, and that a new state of things ought to be established, in which the interests both of rulers and nations should be brought into harmony. The project of this European congress, to which Napoleon immediately issued invitations to all the courts, was entirely frustrated, chiefly through the refusal of England to join in it—a course of action which led to a perceptible coolness between London and Paris. When, soon afterwards, the death of the king of Denmark attracted the attention of Europe to another quarter, Russia was able to proceed in the putting down of the Polish insurrection without interference. Resistance was soon broken, the activity of the National Government was repressed, and the voice of the patriots was silenced. Nevertheless, Alexander II. did not withdraw the offered reforms; but at the same time he sought, by stringently repressive measures, to nullify the principle of Polish nationality, and to keep the Polish-Catholic Church and educational system within narrow bounds. While the rustic population was more closely bound to Russia by the conferring of the right of freehold possession with regard to estates held until then as leaseholds, on condition of the payment of perpetual rent year by year, a ukase prohibited persons of Polish descent from acquiring property in the western governments, and compelled those Polish nobles whose possessions had been sequestrated during the insurrection to sell the same within two years to persons who were not of Polish descent, or to exchange them for property in Russia. The higher offices fell into the hands of nationalized Russians, and in the higher educational establishments the Polish language was replaced by the Russian; while by the Imperial ukase of November 26, 1865, which secularized the Church property and placed it under the administration of the State, the former independence of the Church and clergy was broken.

The Russian Policy of Uniformity.



ON Russian politics the Polish rebellion exercised a disastrous influence. Every effort was now mainly directed towards giving the impress of Russian uniformity to all political, ecclesiastical, and national life. The policy which had been pursued towards Poland was soon applied towards other non-Russian populations—to the Swedes in Finland, and the Germans in the Baltic provinces. To this reactionary policy may be attributed, not only the Polish insurrection, but the attempt on the life of the Emperor Alexander made by a young Russian named Karakasow (16th of April, 1866), who tried to shoot his sovereign as he was coming through the gate of the garden of the palace. The unbounded delight of the whole nation at his fortunate escape, and the sympathy evinced by foreign States, were proofs of the general affection and esteem with which the Czar was at that time still regarded. In April, 1865, the Emperor experienced a heavy loss in the death of his heir, the Grand Duke, who was about to marry Dagmar, the daughter of the king of Denmark. In consequence of a cordial invitation of Napoleon, Alexander paid a visit to Paris on the 1st of June to visit the Exhibition. Difficult as it was to persuade him to undertake the journey, his ill-humour was still further increased when, on several occasions when he showed himself in public, even in the Palais de Justice, the French loudly proclaimed their sympathy for the Poles; and his indignation reached its height when he was shot at in his carriage in the Bois de Boulogne by a young Pole named Berezowsky. The attempt, however, failed, and the assassin was delivered over to the vengeance of the outraged laws.





AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA.

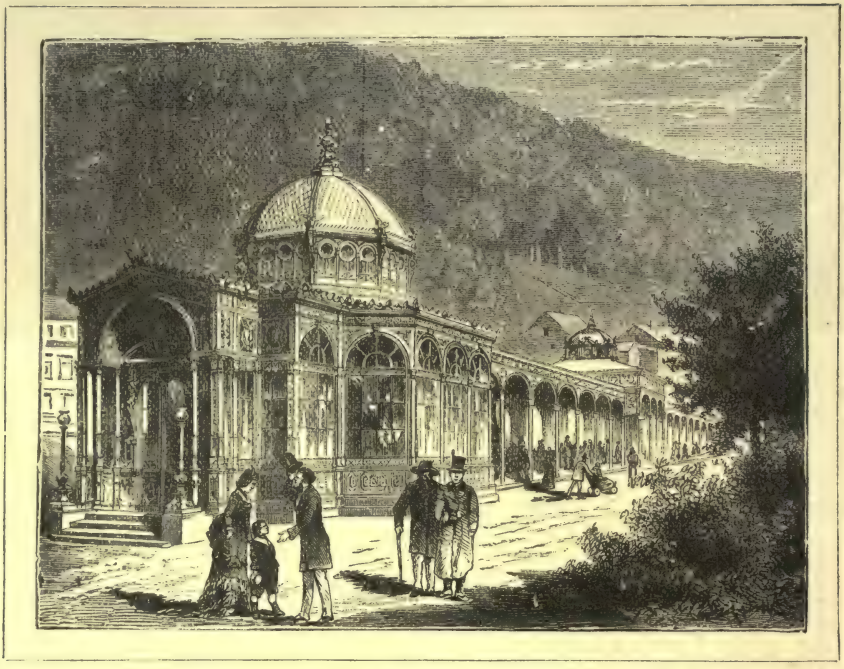
REACTION AND REMONSTRANCE.

RIVALRY BETWEEN AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA.—TENDENCY TO REACTION.—OPPOSITION TO LIBERAL IDEAS AND DESIRES.—AUSTRIA AND THE REACTION.—PECUNIARY DIFFICULTIES OF THE STATE.—METTERNICH'S SYSTEM.—CONDITION OF HUNGARY.—THE FEBRUARY CONSTITUTION OF 1861.—GOVERNMENT PROTEST AGAINST SEPARATISM IN THE EMPIRE.—PRUSSIA.—THE LAST YEARS AND DEATH OF FREDERICK WILLIAM IV.—REACTION TOWARDS ABSOLUTISM.—PREPONDERANCE OF THE ARISTOCRATIC CLASS.—INCREASED SEVERITY OF THE CRIMINAL LAWS.—PRESS RESTRICTIONS, ETC.—REGENCY AND REIGN OF WILLIAM I.—THE NEW ERA.—AGITATION FOR PROGRESS.—TRIUMPH OF THE FEUDAL REACTIONARY PARTY.—COUNT BISMARCK-SCHÖNHAUSEN.—SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.—THE DIPLOMATIC WAR.—CHRISTIAN IX. OF DENMARK.—THE FEDERAL EXECUTION IN HOLSTEIN.—ADVANCE OF FIELD-MARSHAL VON WRANGEL.—THE GERMANS IN SCHLESWIG.—GRAVENSTEIN.—INVASION OF JUTLAND—TAKING OF DÜPPEL.—THE LONDON CONFERENCE.—PEACE OF VIENNA.

THE UNITED GOVERNMENTS OF GERMANY.



THE jealousy which had always existed between the two great Powers of Prussia and Austria was now intensified; and a rivalry commenced which exercised a disastrous effect on the whole life of Germany. Though both agreed in repressing democracy and in nullifying parliamentary government, yet they pursued different interests, and relied on divergent principles. The restoration of the Diet was Austria's work; and Prussia only gave its consent with inward reluctance and chagrin. It was therefore natural that most of the central and smaller States, who by means of the Diet could alone escape the dreaded subjugation, should go hand-in-hand with Austria and procure her the majority in every conflict. If the Prussian Government in Germany had shown a popular tendency similar to that of Sardinia in Italy, the



WILDBAD.

dissension, which was chiefly exhibited in diplomatic arts and conflicts, would have penetrated more deeply into the nation, and would perhaps have led to a central Government on federal principles, with parliamentary representation. But as, on the contrary, Prussia identified herself more and more with the principles of reaction, she became less a centre of hope and aspiration for the national party. And thus we have the lamentable spectacle of the German people wasting their power and energy, partly in combating reaction in the separate States, and in saving at least some fragments of its conquered liberties; partly in creating a constitution, in which, undisturbed by the separate existence of States and races, the German nation might stand forth as a whole and take up among European States a position corresponding to its greatness, power, and development. It will presently appear how most of the Governments again released themselves from the unpopular laws and constitutional methods to which they had been compelled to have recourse, now the nobility won back their privileges.

In the churches and universities the orthodox tendency now became the rule. Only in a few States could the voices of the Liberals obtain a hearing. It was so in Bavaria, where a benevolent prince, King Maximilian II. annihilated the conflict between the States and the Government with the words: "I will have peace with my people," dismissed the ministry from office and consented to the demands of the Diet; in Coburg Gotha, where the free-thinking duke Ernst sought to stem the reactionary tendency; and in Baden, where a humane prince gave free scope, within the limits of the law and constitution, to the development of every power and energy in all the departments of public life.

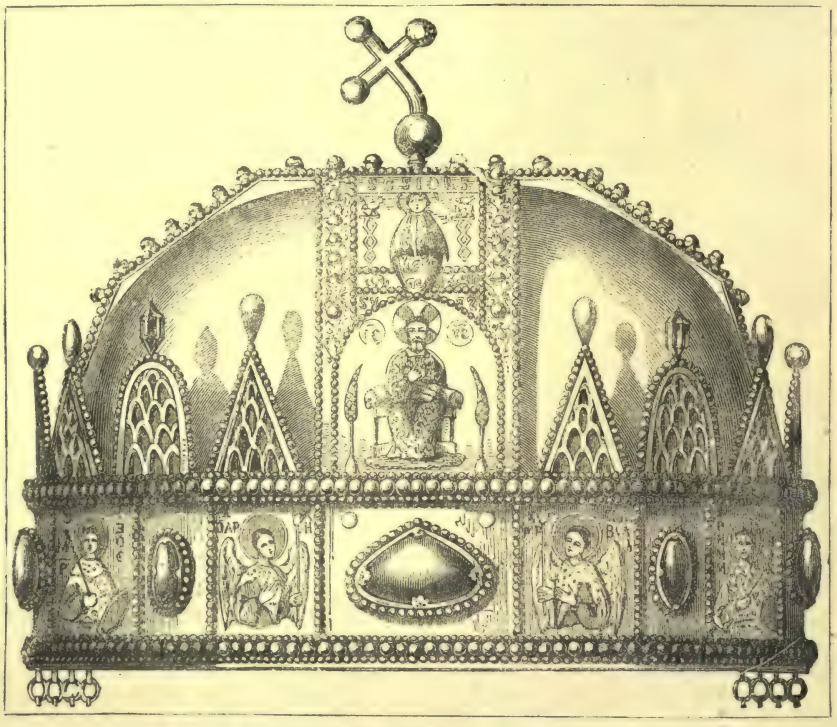


FRANZENSBAD.

AUSTRIA.—REACTIONARY TENDENCIES.

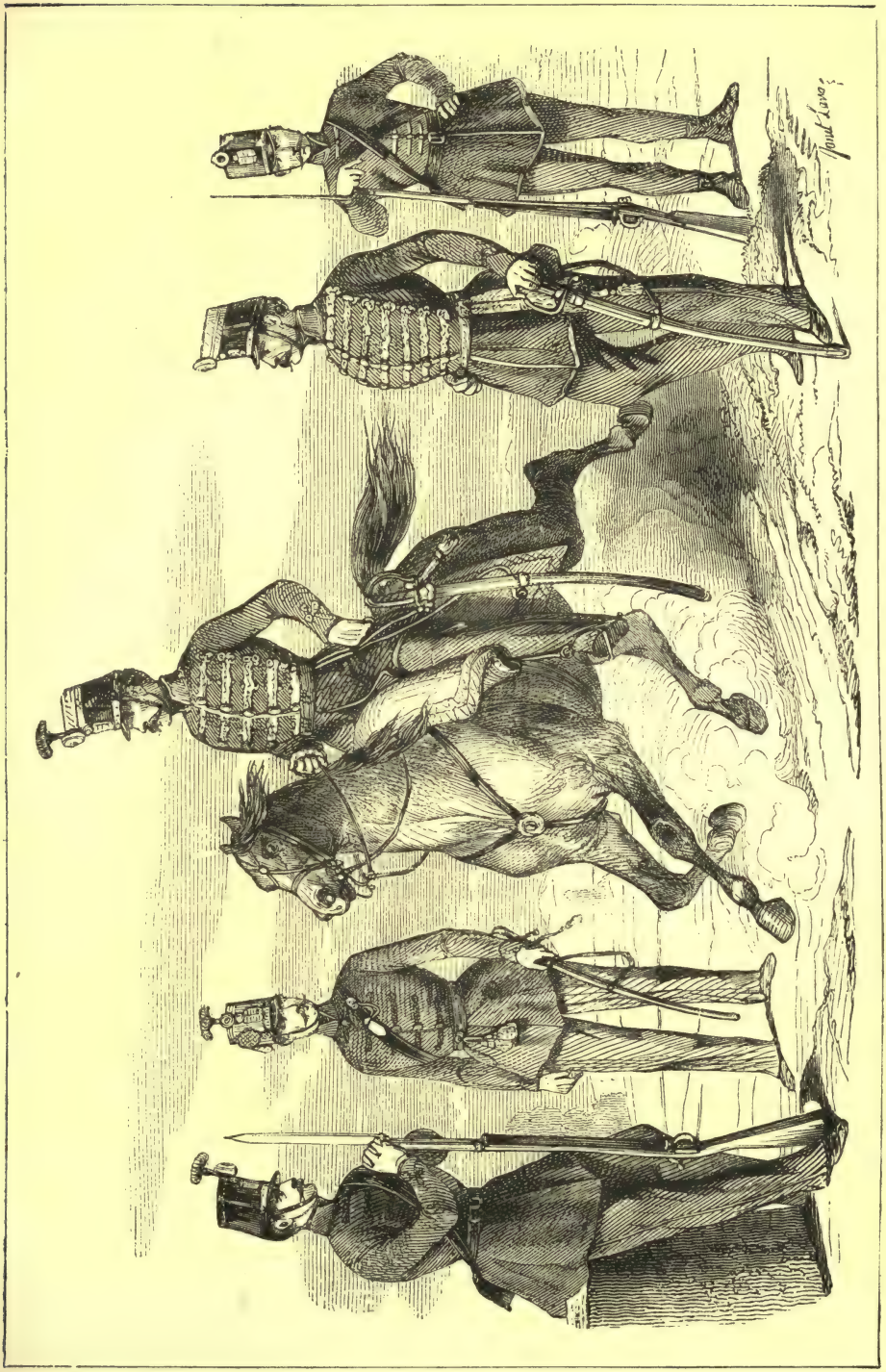
THE reactionary aspirations in the German allied States found a strong support in the two great Powers, Austria and Prussia. The Imperial State had successfully encountered the gigantic struggle of the years 1848 and 1849, and had yet been strong enough to restore the Diet, to humiliate her hated rival in the north, and to repress the efforts of the German people in obtaining a free and dignified state life. But these results had been purchased with heavy sacrifices. The maintenance of a large military force was an immense pecuniary burden to the Government, and, in conjunction with high taxes, brought the exchequer into inextricable confusion. On account of the disinclination of the Austrian aristocracy for the use of State paper-money and for speculations, and the want of public spirit and patriotism, any attempt to cover the deficiency by voluntary national loans did not meet with the same success as in England and France; and the handing over of the State railways for a number of years to the French Government, and the taxation of coal-mines, etc., afforded only a temporary remedy. As in most of the countries of Europe, and especially in Germany, so also in Austria had the reactionary party endeavoured to subvert everything which had been called into life during the revolutionary period. Nowhere had absolute monarchy so completely shown its impotence and unfruitfulness as in the Austrian States under the soul-deadening system of Metternich. The nationalities which were united under the sceptre of

Austria were incapable of any concerted action in the path of reform, though the quiescence which characterized them was no sign of content; for powers had been awakened which could not be entirely repressed, and ideas of liberty and national independence had sprung up which shattered the fetters of the old State policy. The attempt made to assassinate the Emperor by Joseph Libenyi, in February, 1853, was not the result of a conspiracy, but only the criminal action of a single individual; nevertheless, it was a noteworthy sign of the prevailing excitement in the hitherto faithful Austria. The Government quickly recognised that comprehensive reforms in all the branches of public life must no longer be delayed; the administration of justice was re-organized; in Hungary an attempt was made, by means of establishing a new division of five administrative districts with a chief governor,



THE ANCIENT CROWN OF HUNGARY.

to form a strong administration and to allay national antipathies; and it was regarded as a hopeful sign that the ancient Hungarian royal crown and jewels, which had been buried by Kossuth, were discovered and handed over to the reigning house of Hapsburg, in September, 1853. Nevertheless, the popular grievances were too deep, the vengeance of the sword was a too recent memory, and the number of exiled and fugitive patriots was too large, for the possibility of complete reconciliation. During the year 1860 many reforms were introduced, including the establishment of a commission for public debts and a re-organized Imperial Council, which had a beneficial effect on the embarrassed finances of the empire, and which were intended to allay the agitation in Hungary. But even after a few months the Emperor found



HUNGARIAN CAVALRY AND INFANTRY OF 1854.

himself compelled to grant fresh concessions, and so to extend the powers of the re-organized Imperial Council, "that in future the introduction of fresh taxes and imposts, as well as the levying of existing taxes, should only take place with his consent." Not till the 20th of October did an Imperial manifesto proclaim the principles of the future constitution of Austria, by which Hungary regained its former organization, though the measure was marred by restrictions as to the meeting of the different Diets, in which the nobility and clergy were awarded a disproportionate share in the representation. How little these regulations corresponded with the theories of the age was shown by the general dissatisfaction with which public opinion received them. The Emperor was then induced to summon a more liberal ministry, and on the 26th of February, 1861, the February Constitution was drawn up, in which Austria took rank with the constitutional States. It required the whole strength and energy of the Minister of State, Von Schmerling, to carry through a work which met with such obstinate resistance on all sides. To the adherents of absolutism, the nobility and the clergy, the mere idea of constitutional popular rights was an abomination, the equality of Protestants was scouted, while the new measures met with still more vehement opposition from the national antipathy of the non-German races towards every constitutional change.

The Government, nevertheless, stood firm. The speech from the throne with which the Emperor opened the sessions of the two chambers of the Imperial Council contained the solemn assurance that he recognised his duty as a ruler, which he had undertaken solemnly, in the face of all the Powers, being based upon the idea of a united and indivisible empire, and he was ready to support with all his imperial power the oath he had taken at the solemn hour of his coronation. He further proclaimed his unalterable determination to "oppose any violation of the Constitution as an attack on the existence of the monarchy, and on the rights of all his countries and subjects."

The entire constitutional work, however, took root only in German Austria; the Slav and Magyar population resisted a measure which threatened to maintain or procure the preponderance of the German element. But however imperfect might be the formation of the Imperial Chamber, an important step was nevertheless taken by its means towards the development of public spirit and the establishment of a constitutional State and system of legislation. The financial condition was improved, the value of the paper-money of the State was enhanced, and the Chamber of Deputies at Vienna was zealously active in inducing the Government to lessen the deficit by economy, and to create a strong foundation for a sound financial policy.

Reactionary Policy followed by Prussia. — The Last Years and Death of King Frederick William IV.

IN Prussia the period of reaction commenced, not with a constitutional rupture, but with the swearing allegiance to the new Constitution by King Frederick William IV., on the 6th of February, 1850. But in the speech with which he accompanied the oath, his inward repugnance was only too apparent. "The king does not celebrate the birth of a new liberty, but the funeral ceremony of princely power, in the hope of its resurrection." This repugnance towards the Constitution which placed his royal prerogative within legal bounds, and hatred towards the authors of it, coloured the whole reign of Frederick William IV., and was the source and motive force of all his internal policy.

In the endeavour to obtain a remedy for the "destructive revolutionary spirit," the development of the Government was restricted, and the necessary consequences of the constitutional system were evaded or violated, class privileges were again restored, and the tyranny of officialism and the hierarchical power of the Church were established upon new foundations.

On one point alone did Prussia pursue a successful and popular policy—in the extension and development of the tariff-union. With the renewal of this measure and the conclusion of the Austrian commercial treaty, the last traces of the German constitutional agitation vanished; and as the peaceful messages from the French Empire gave rise to a feeling of security from outward interference, the Prussian Government, under the ministry of Manteuffel, entered boldly on the path of reaction. As in Hanover and Mecklenburg, so here also, the "feudal party," the small landed gentry took the lead in political matters, and, in alliance with the court, endeavoured to bring back the Prussian State to a condition of absolutism. An attempt had been made to introduce a system of self-government in the provinces and districts; but this much-needed organization was set aside by the First Chamber, the old provincial regulations were restored, and three separate jurisdictions were established for the different divisions of the kingdom, with great limitations of civil rights and privileges. Crime was more severely punished, State offences were placed under the supervision of a "State tribunal," and the new Press laws laid the heavy hand of authority on the free expression of public opinion. This reactionary movement met with but little opposition; democracy held itself aloof from political life. By reason of the preponderating influence of the feudal party in Prussian policy, it was natural that in the Russian-Oriental war, the Berlin Cabinet should not allow itself to be drawn into any alliance against "the ruler of all the Russias," whom the court and the whole aristocracy venerated as their protector.

While the whole European world was regarding, in a state of tension, the mighty struggle which was being carried on in the East, a police director, Von Hinckeldey, was shot in a duel by a young nobleman (March, 1856),

because he had shut up an aristocratic gambling house, and in the immediate vicinity of the king important despatches were sold to the French embassy. A polluted atmosphere hung over the Berlin court and the fashionable circles, recalling ancient times and customs, and the licentious rule of a former century. A few months after the Peace of Paris, Prussia was drawn, through



COSTUME OF GERMAN PEASANT WOMAN OF OLDENBURG.

an insignificant circumstance—the royalist rebellion in the principality of Neuenburg in Switzerland—into warlike demonstrations.

The principality of Wälsch-Neuenburg had during the revolutionary year of 1848 freed itself from the supremacy of Prussia, and had joined the Swiss Confederacy. In 1856, however, an attempt was made by the adherents of

Prussia to restore the old relationship. Prussia immediately joined issue, and despatched an army of 100,000 men; but an arrangement was ultimately arrived at through the mediation of Napoleon, in which Switzerland agreed to release the royalists who had been imprisoned during the rising, while the King of Prussia renounced his right to Neuenburg. From this time forward French influence was predominant in Switzerland.

Shortly after these events, King Frederick William began to show signs of a mental malady, and Prince William of Prussia, the brother of the childless king, was appointed regent, with full royal powers, for three months, and this period was twice over prolonged. During this interim occurred the marriage



THE PRINCESS ROYAL OF ENGLAND.

of the eldest son of the prince with Victoria, the daughter of the Queen of England, which was greeted with delight by the Prussian people as a guarantee for a prosperous future. As no improvement seemed likely to take place in the health of Frederick William, it became at last necessary to take measures in accordance with the Constitution. Accordingly, on the 8th of October, 1858, the king made over to his brother the full powers of the government, with the title of Prince Regent. He himself lived on for a short time in retirement after his abdication, and died in retirement on the 2nd of January, 1861.

The New Era.

In the meantime the Prince Regent had carried on the government in a liberal manner, had summoned a representative ministry, with the Catholic prince of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen at the head, whose religion afforded a guarantee to the Catholics for the freedom of both Confessions, and by so doing had won the esteem and gratitude of the Prussian people. Soon it became apparent, throughout the whole of public life, in the press, in the chambers, and in social intercourse, how much liberty had been advanced and encouraged since the heavy incubus which had weighed upon the life of the people had been withdrawn. The popular party now came forth from their retirement, and the more moderate united with the old Liberals in forming a "party of progress," thus investing public life with a new impulse. After the death of Frederick William and the accession of the Prince Regent to the throne as King William I., the programme of the Liberals showed signs of aims and aspirations of a more advanced nature, which were not in harmony with the sentiments of the king. A constitutional State, with supremacy of the law and an active parliamentary life according to the conceptions of the advanced party, contradicted all the traditions and theories of the House of Hohenzollern, which traced the possession of its crown to Divine right, and in the personal rule of the head of the State recognised the worthiest expression of the monarchical principle. While the Liberal majority of the former Chamber of Deputies had treated the Ministry with marvellous moderation to obviate the return of the Manteuffel Ministry, a party of agitation had now come into existence which endeavoured to dominate public life with the power of political principles and doctrines and to keep it in constant subordination. The "new era" was to penetrate every department of the State organization. A path was thus struck out which necessarily brought the Government into sharp conflict with the party of progress—a conflict which the High Churchmen and military class ingeniously fomented in order to fill the king with distrust of the plans and aims of the Assembly of States.

These tactics of the Feudalists succeeded. Already in March, 1862, the proposal of the Chamber of Deputies that the Government should be compelled to submit the budget of expenditure to their consideration in greater detail, led to such disputes between the Government and the administration that the moderate-liberal Ministry retired, and the Diet was dissolved. The struggle increased, and assumed an even more violent character, when the next representatives also fell out with the Government, the majority of the Chamber of Deputies returned, strengthened in numbers and emboldened by the acquiescence of the overpowering majority of the nation. As under these conditions there was no prospect of an agreement between the Government and the legislative body with regard to the finances, especially as the king, after the dismissal of the Minister von der Heydt, selected his counsellors from the Feudal party, and placed Herr von Bismarck-Schönhausen at the head of the Ministry, further dissolutions and adjournments took place. Disputes also arose with regard to the new organization of the army according to the plan of the king. An accommodation between the Government and the people's representative had not been arrived at, when the war with Austria and the German allied States broke forth, and the heroic martial deeds of the Prussian army created a second "new era," in which it was intended that the old dispute with regard to higher aims should find its end.



SCENE ON THE COAST OF SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.

SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN ; THE DIPLOMATIC WAR.



IN opposition to the order of succession in the male line, which had prevailed for centuries in Schleswig-Holstein, the future possession of the dukedom of Schleswig-Holstein was secured by the Warsaw protocol of the 5th of June, 1851, to Prince Christian of Sonderburg-Glücksburg, who, through the female line, was the appointed successor to the throne of Denmark, in order that "the integrity of the Danish monarchy" might be preserved. By this proceeding the Duke of Augustenburg was deprived of his inheritance, and Christian of Glücksburg, the "protocol prince," in opposition to traditional right and the voice of the country, was declared the successor of the reigning, childless king, Frederick VII. With this measure, which was to have preserved peace, a state of martial law set in for the duchies of Schleswig-Holstein, such as had never before been established but by a victorious enemy in conquered and subjugated countries. Though some forbearance was shown in Holstein and Lauenburg out of regard for the German confederacy, the continuance of which was expressly stipulated in

the London treaty, proceedings were all the more cruel and relentless in Schleswig, and the unfortunate country was subjected to all the miseries of a despotic foreign rule. Danish military were scattered throughout the land to give impression to the tyranny of police and officials, while the natives were carried off across the sea, to forget their home in Danish garrisons, or to be detained as hostages. Nevertheless, the "cry of distress" from the north met with but a feeble response from the German people. Denmark would have gained her desired aim, had not the Duchies themselves protected their rights with manly firmness. An attempt to establish a Diet which was to be supreme over the provincial States of Schleswig and Holstein-Lauenburg met with strong resistance. Denmark appealed for aid to the other European Powers, and promised to lay the constitutional scheme before the States of Holstein. The latter refused, however, to negotiate in a one-sided manner, as long as the political position of Holstein was not regulated with regard to the whole monarchy, in a manner justified by its claim to independence. The Danes would willingly have sacrificed for the allied territory the whole Constitution, if they could, in return, have secured the possession of Schleswig.

Declaration of the Diet.—Execution.

AT last the Diet declared in February, 1858, that the whole Constitution, as well as a portion of the separate Constitution, could not be regarded as valid for the duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, and demanded their withdrawal. Denmark long delayed the carrying out of the decision; and only when the Diet, impatient at endless prevarications, threatened execution, was the Imperial Constitution, with the part relating to the separate Constitution for Schleswig and Lauenburg, set on one side. In accordance with a resolution declaring that "the intended Constitution was to prevail in full force in those portions of the monarchy which did not belong to the German union," the absolute royal power was still supreme in all essential points, only without the representation of the Holstein-Lauenburg deputies in the Imperial Chamber, which immediately became transformed into an "Eider-parliament," the long-cherished ideal of the Eider-Danish party. Thus the incorporation of Schleswig was carried out in all but name. The Holstein States, however, rejected this treacherous arrangement, and demanded the full independence of the different countries of the monarchy, which was refused by the Danish Government. In spite of the loud expressions of public opinion in Germany in favour of the union of the two Duchies in a joint government, the Diet of Copenhagen held resolutely to the idea of the "Eider-Danish kingdom;" and even the attempt at mediation made by the English minister Lord John Russell, to secure the independence of Schleswig, was rejected (January, 1863).

For some time the Schleswig-Holstein question had become a matter of international politics. Denmark and Schleswig united into a "State of the Eider" under one Constitution, Holstein annexed to them, but governed according to Danish interests—such was the aim of the dominant party. In



SCANDINAVIAN CUSTOMS.—A PEASANT'S WEDDING.

conformity with this scheme a new provincial government was inaugurated for Holstein, and a Constitution was completed for the "State of the Eider," which in all essential things incorporated Schleswig with the Danish kingdom. Then at last the Imperial Diet decided to carry out the long-threatened execution. Frederick VII., who was completely in the hands of the national party, consented to everything, and the bond which united the two duchies was to be entirely severed.

But fate interposed to frustrate the unjust scheme, and before the work was completely carried out, the king was suddenly snatched away by death (November, 1863). The Prince of Holstein-Glücksburg now ascended the throne as Christian IX., and under pressure of the citizens of Copenhagen proceeded to carry out the new constitutional law. At the same time however, the heir, Prince Frederick of Augustenburg, to whom his father had bequeathed his rights, as Duke Frederick VIII., announced his possession of the united duchies of Schleswig-Holstein, and prepared to assert his right by every available means, and in this he received the eager support of the German people. The Diet, however, did not allow itself to be carried away by the stream of popular enthusiasm ; the proposition that the execution should be transformed into an occupation was not agreed to, and a small majority ultimately pronounced for the execution. In December, Saxon and Hanoverian troops marched across the Elbe to invest the German duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, while the Danes, at the suggestion of the other great Powers, not regarding the execution as a case of war, immediately evacuated all the country south of the Eider, so that with the new year 1864, the whole dukedom of Holstein was in the hands of the allies, and shortly afterwards Frederick of Augustenburg was proclaimed duke. Nevertheless, the more arduous part of the task was yet to come. Compliant as were the Danes in the surrender of Holstein, they on the other hand retained obstinate possession of Schleswig, relying on England, where the Government and people were unanimously in favour of Denmark ; and, in the hope that the German Government would soon fall into disputes and contentions, the Danes adopted a confident attitude. Matters, however, took a turn otherwise than they anticipated. Austria and Prussia, who were now for the first time hand-in-hand, demanded the withdrawal of the November Constitution ; and when Christian IX. refused this request, they declared that they no longer regarded the London Treaty as binding, and that they would invest Schleswig.

Warlike Operations against Denmark.



AT the beginning of January, the combined Austro-Prussian armies, under the command of the aged field-marshal Von Wrangel, marched into Holstein. The first violent conflict took place near the village of Oeversee, in which the Austrian troops experienced considerable losses at the hands of the enemy, until, after obtaining considerable reinforcements, they at last succeeded in gaining a brilliant victory. On the 7th of February, Flensburg was garrisoned without resistance, after one division of the Danish army had taken up a strong position behind the Dannewerk, while the other division continued their retreat to Fridericia. But so excited were the masses of the people in Copenhagen, that threatening demonstrations towards the royal family, and towards the "traitors" in the army, took place, till the Ministry found themselves compelled, by the dismissal of the commander-in-chief De Meza, to offer a sacrifice to the popular wrath; and the king, in a proclamation full of sorrow and dejection, summoned the soldiers to a courageous resistance, and implored them not to forsake him; for the country lay open to the enemy.

With the arrival of the German troops in Schleswig, the manifestations in homage of the Duke increased there also. In Germany the people rejoiced at the brilliant successes in the field; but distrust as to the views of the great Powers damped their joy. The Governments of the central States were apprehensive for their sovereignty; and the trading towns on the north coast suffered great losses by the hostile steps of the Danes, who declared the harbours in a state of blockade. Nevertheless, the honour of the German arms was gloriously asserted. The Prussians gradually advanced towards Gravenstein, when there soon ensued a number of reconnoitring skirmishes, as an introduction to greater conflicts; while another division marched towards the frontier, and on the 18th of February advanced even to Kolding, the first town on Jutland soil, and, in spite of the indignation which the step aroused in London, the investment of Jutland was commenced. While Gablenz, the Austrian general, seized the town of Beile, and pursued the enemy towards Horsen, the Prussians, after revenging the small defeats which they had suffered in the battles of Gudsöe and Heisekrug, marched upon Fridericia; but the hope of successfully bombarding the town, and forcing it to capitulate was not fulfilled; it was necessary to commence a blockade. At the strong fortification, Düppel, the Danes strenuously exerted themselves to retrieve the military honour of the nation, which had been compromised by the fall of the

Dannewerk. But on the 15th of March the Prussians landed on the island of Fehmarn, and gained important advantages. At the same time the town of Sonderburg, on the island of Alsen, was bombarded and set on fire by the Prussians. Much anger was excited by the fate of this fortified town. In the meantime the siege of Düppel was being carried on by the Prussians; and after many desperate onslaughts, the place was captured on the evening of the 18th of April, and the Danes driven to the island of Alsen. With the fall of Düppel the fate of the war was decided. The Danes made no further effort to defend the continent, and all around resistance was at an end.

THE LONDON CONFERENCE.—PEACE OF VIENNA.



WHEN the struggle was over, the plenipotentiaries of the European States met in London, "to seek some means of bringing back once more the blessings of peace to the north of Europe." The German league was represented by the Saxon minister Von Beust. Such a variety of views and opinions were now put forward as to the disposal of the territory of Schleswig-Holstein, that after considerable discussion the Conference separated without arriving at an agreement, and hostilities once more commenced. But the Danish hopes of gaining the assistance of England proved delusive. Neither the influence of the Princess of Wales, Alexandra of Denmark, nor the noisy threats which were uttered in the Press and in Parliament, availed to induce the Palmerston-Russell ministry to proceed to armed intervention. The renewed hostilities, therefore, quickly took a turn unfavourable to the Danes. In the night, from the 28th to the 29th of June (1864), Prince Frederick Karl advanced to make an attack on Alsen; and by the 1st of July the Prussians had obtained possession of the whole island. The losses of the Danes now followed each other in quick succession; and when a landing at Fühnen, or Zealand, became within the range of possibility, King Christian IX. at last decided to enter into negotiations with Austria and Prussia, with a view to bringing about an agreement. On the 20th of July, therefore, all hostilities were discontinued by land and sea, and the Vienna Conference now undertook the arduous task of arranging a peaceful solution. The German League was not represented on this occasion. This slight, in conjunction with the arrogant demeanour of Prussia at Rendsburg, widened the breach which already existed between the great Powers and the Diet. A deep distrust that Prussia might herself cherish the idea of "annexing" the Duchies, gained ground among them. The preliminaries of peace, over which the representatives of Denmark, Austria, and Prussia had already agreed on the 1st of August, were not calculated to remove or lessen this distrust. Without concern for the future fate of the invested countries, the treaty only stipulated that the King of Denmark should

renounce all his rights to the duchies of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg in favour of the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria, besides making regulations as to the boundary between Schleswig and Jutland, the islands to be incorporated with Schleswig, etc.

In this case, as in many others, the coalition of two rival powers for a common object produced heartburnings and jealousies, on account of the arrangements made for the distribution of the spoil. It has been wisely observed by an English historian, that in a coalition each member is likely to think he has had too much of the labour, and too little of the profit.



ALEXANDRA, PRINCESS OF WALES.



FOUNDING OF THE KINGDOM OF ITALY.

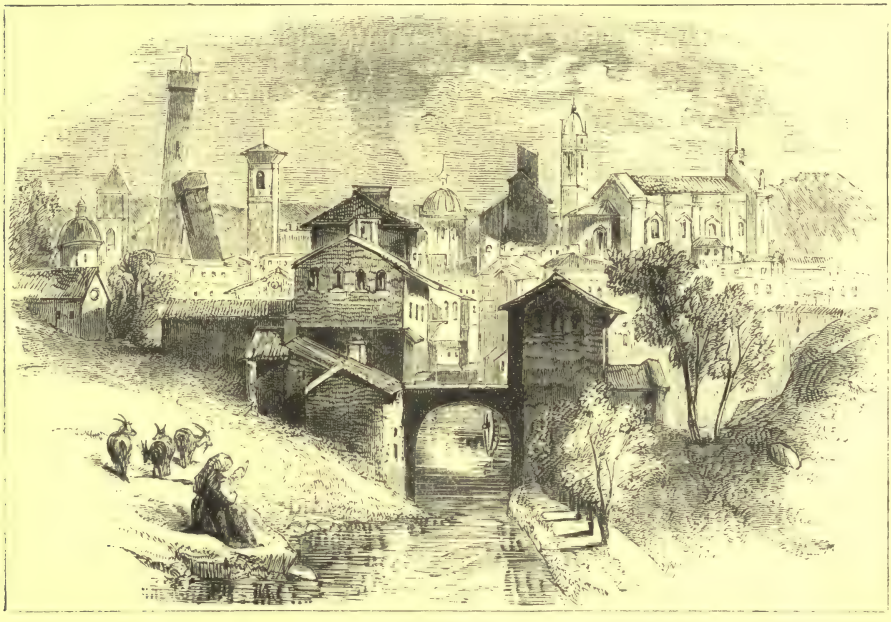
THE POLITICAL CONDITION OF ITALY.—CONFLICTING PARTIES.—THE SARDINIAN GOVERNMENT AND VICTOR EMMANUEL.—SYSTEM OF REPRESSION IN ITALY.—AUSTRIA AND SARDINIA; THEIR ANTAGONISM.—NAPLES UNDER FERDINAND II.—AGITATION IN ITALY.—REMONSTRANCES OF ENGLAND AND FRANCE.—GLADSTONE'S REPORT. — DIPLOMATIC INTERCOURSE BROKEN OFF. — ENTERPRISE OF PISICANE. — THE *CAGLIARI*. — TRANSPORTATION OF POLITICAL PRISONERS.—NAPOLEON III. AND HIS ATTITUDE TOWARDS ITALY. —FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN FRANCE AND RUSSIA.—INVASION OF ITALY BY THE FRENCH.—BATTLE OF MONTEBELLO.—MAGENTA.

POLITICAL SITUATION IN ITALY; POSITION OF PARTIES.



AT the Peace Congress held at Paris at the conclusion of the Crimean war, Sardinia was represented by the great statesman Count Cavour, the chief minister and counsellor of King Victor Emmanuel. The kingdom of Sardinia possessed the sympathy of France and England, and had earned a title to the gratitude of those Powers by gallant and disinterested aid rendered in the struggle with Russia, especially as exhibited at the battle of the Tchernaya. Thus it was not without the silent acquiescence of the two great nations that Cavour endeavoured to persuade the Assembly that no lasting peace could be established in Europe until Italy had attained to that national unity which was the aspiration of all parties; and therefore the Italian statesman drew up a paper, in which he demanded that Euorpe should re-

cognise the national unity of Italy, that Austria should give a free constitution to the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, the States of the Church be freed from the foreign army of occupation, and placed under the supervision of a secular governor, while the sovereignty of the Pope was maintained,—and the misrule in Naples and Sicily was to be put an end to by intervention. Though these demands could not, in the first instance, be recognised by the Congress, they formed the programme of the party of progress in Sardinia and the whole Italian peninsula, the foundation of all endeavours at reform from the Alps to the southern extremity of Sicily ; and although the Radical party, who followed the suggestions of Mazzini, by no means considered the proposed changes as sufficient, but placed their hopes upon the establishment of a democratic Republic, even the extreme Liberals, to a great extent, went hand-in-hand with the Liberal-Monarchical party, who recognised the king of



BOLOGNA.

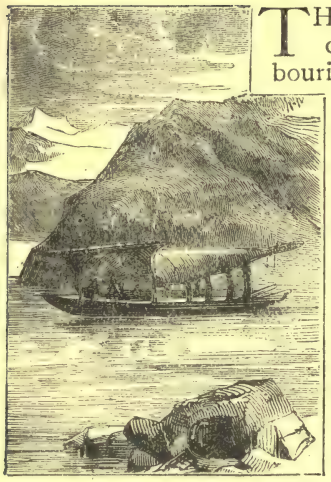
Sardinia as their chief dependence, and Cavour as their spokesman and head, hoping thus to avoid any weakening of the popular influence and hindrance to popular progress, and leaving the further development of affairs to the course of events.

Piedmont, which, with the mountain-country of Savoy and the island of Sardinia, formed the State designated by that name, numbered but five million of inhabitants, and could only hope to place itself at the head of the Italian nation if it succeeded in breaking the power and influence of Austria. For not only was the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom kept in awe and subjection, since the time of Radetzky's victories, by powerful armies and by fortresses of formidable strength,—Austria was also considered as the safeguard and support of the Conservative and reactionary party in the west of Italy, and in the smaller States with which it was connected by family ties and protective treaties. Confiding in Austrian support, the restored Goverments of Modena

and Parma had inaugurated a policy of persecution and vengeance, not only against their opponents of the revolutionary years, but against all adherents of a free constitutional system. By Austrian influence the Constitution was abolished in Tuscany. The northern part of the States of the Church, the "Legations," had been occupied by Austrian troops; and trusting in the assistance of Austria, and following the example of that Power, King Ferdinand II. of Naples and Sicily (Bomba) held his people in degrading servitude by means of a great military force, increased in numbers by foreign mercenaries, and exercised tyranny and extortion in an unheard-of manner. Austria defended the Pope by placing garrisons in his territories; while, by the Concordat signed between Rome and Austria, great privileges were granted to the clergy, to secure the help of the priesthood against the tendencies of the time.

To diminish the power of the Empire, Austria was the object of the most zealous efforts of Victor Emmanuel's Government. The king of Sardinia, endowed with military genius and high courage, was filled with zeal for the interests of his native country and for her national honour. The attempts to procure the liberation of Italy by force of arms had always been unsuccessful; therefore the Austrian Government was to be undermined and shaken before the Italian nation, strengthened by foreign help, should once more grasp the sword. Thus, at that period, two political systems were beheld in activity in the Italian peninsula, taking root especially in Upper Italy, and dividing the whole population into two hostile camps, appealing to opposing interests, opinions, and passions of the partisans, and combating each other with every variety of weapon. While Austria, according to the old custom, placed her dependence upon the power of the bayonet and the influence of the clergy,—seeking at the same time to keep her subjects in subjection and obedience by police regulations and by repression of the national intellect, and to move other Governments to similar measures and principles by means of treaties,—Sardinia, on the other hand, pursued an opposite course, weakening the influence of the clergy in the country, establishing a free Constitution within her own dominions, and seeking to win the sympathies of the Italian people. As early as the year 1850 laws had been passed abolishing the clerical jurisdictions, placing the non-Catholic subjects under the protection of the State laws, and lessening the incomes of the clerics, thus inflicting a heavy discouragement upon them. The threats of Rome were disregarded, and the bishops who made resistance were judicially punished. To meet the increased expenses, reforms were undertaken in the following years on the basis of equality of rights for all citizens; and commerce and industry were promoted by railways and by commercial treaties with foreign countries. While the number of convents was limited, the Press was liberated from vexatious restrictions, the abolition of tithes was inaugurated, with many other measures in the same spirit. At the same time the military power was strengthened, the fortress of Alessandria put into a defensible condition, and the military position of the country in every way improved. Thus Piedmont attained the advantage, that while the remaining States of Italy were keeping up an ineffectual barrier against revolutionary movements, it provided a safe channel for the passage of the flood, which at the same time was confined within definite bounds.

AUSTRIA AND SARDINIA; NAPLES.



THE Austrian Government looked with anger and disquietude on the busy political life of the neighbouring country, whose activity formed a striking contrast to the torpor of Lombardo-Venetia, lying motionless under the pressure of the reaction, but yet the object of the most ardent hopes and aspirations of the Italian patriots. Austria's anger and apprehension were further excited by the increasing emigration of respectable men, and indeed of whole families, to the promised land of freedom, Piedmont, where they were not only joyfully welcomed, but frequently promoted to offices in the army and the State. As early as February, 1853, when an abortive insurrection in Milan had again aroused the vengeful spirit of Austria, measures of increased severity were adopted. It was demanded that the Lombard fugitives should be interned or removed from the frontiers; and to prevent further emigration, by burdening the Sardinian Government with the support of new-comers, the property of emigrants in Lombardy and Venice was confiscated. The relations of the two Governments were so strained that diplomatic intercourse was broken off.

Meanwhile the active part taken by Sardinia in the Crimean War gave that Power the privilege of a voice at the Congress of Paris, with Powers of the first magnitude, on European questions; and it could now come forward as the protective and representative Power of Italy. The good understanding with France and England was strengthened by a visit of King Victor Emmanuel and his able minister to Paris and London. The anxiety of the English nation for the unification of Italy was loudly and ungrudgingly displayed; and in France there were old sympathies for the beautiful land that had been so intimately associated with the great days of fame and glory of the First Empire. Great as was the displeasure of Austria at these appearances, that State was unable to betray its sentiments by new and hostile measures, for its conduct during the war in the East had been doubtful and equivocal. Indeed, it endeavoured to inspire confidence by a policy of partial conciliation. In the winter of 1856 to 1857 the Emperor undertook a progress through his Italian dominions, accompanied by his fair young consort, Elizabeth of Bavaria. This first "joyful progress," emphasized by the restoration of sequestrated estates of all political fugitives, and by an amnesty for political offences, was successful in exciting some demonstrations of loyalty, at least among the lower classes in Milan and other Lombard towns. But national antipathies and passions had been too powerfully aroused to allow of a permanent reconciliation and a continuance of friendly relations. The Sardinian press had already taken up a position of irreconcilable opposition. Through all Italy associations had been formed, differing indeed among themselves, but having national unity for their common object.

Chief among these was the "National Union," founded by La Farina, a citizen of Messina. With this association Garibaldi, who, after many vicissitudes, had found an asylum with his family on the island of Caprera, connected him-

self. The chief aim of this association was to achieve the liberation of Italy from foreign dominion, by means of the Sardinian Government, and to aid the efforts of Cavour in this direction by every conceivable means. With this aim was necessarily associated the idea of expelling the petty princes, who were mere mouthpieces of Austria. The radical "Union of Action," which received its instructions from the agitator Mazzini, who resided first at Locarno and then in Genoa, his native place, had wider designs, but possessed neither the ability nor the will to hamper the national movement then proceeding under



NAPLES AND VESUVIUS.

the popular names of Cavour and Garibaldi. Everywhere in Italy there was excitement; purchases of arms by means of voluntary subscriptions pointed to warlike undertakings; separate risings in various places, generally put down with bloodshed, kept the people in continual expectation, and drew the attention of the other Powers towards the deeply agitated country, where princes and subjects were at constant strife, where civic right and civil order were benefits unknown to the community, and where the daggers of conspirators bade defiant opposition to the crimes of tyrants and their myrmidons. Thus already in March, 1854, Duke Charles III. of Parma, a deadly enemy of the



SARDINIAN INFANTRY SOLDIERS, 1859.

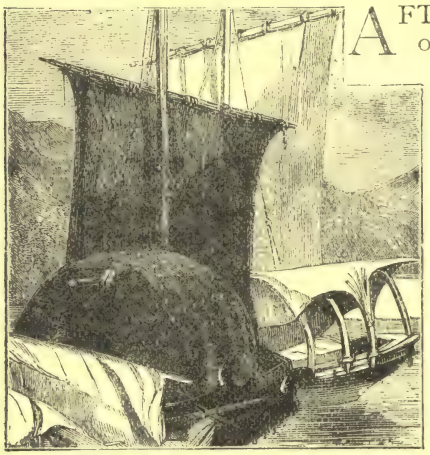
democrats and patriots, who had raised his English stud-groom, a man named Ward, to the position of a prime minister, with unlimited power, had been murdered in the open street, and the murderer was not apprehended; and two years later two detested men, the prison director Cereali, and the War Office auditor Bordi, fell under the hands of assassins. Indeed, such was the insecurity in Parma that a state of siege was declared. Similar deeds were done in other parts of Italy, especially at Milan, where Austrian soldiers were waylaid singly in the streets, and slain.

The condition of things was most deplorable in Naples and Sicily, a country that nature had beautified as a Paradise, while man had converted it into a Gehenna. King Ferdinand II., surnamed Bomba (Bombshell) by the people, for the cruelty with which he had put down a rising in 1848 in the capital, made use of the year of European reaction to crush out every sign of liberty and every remnant of popular rights, by the help of his Swiss guard and mercenary troops. He filled the gaols with his political opponents; and, surrounded by a truculent force of officials and a numerous clergy, carried on a rule of terror. A series of letters by the distinguished English statesman William Ewart Gladstone, who saw with his own eyes the condition of things in Naples, aroused indignation throughout Europe; and earnest remonstrances were addressed by the English and French Governments to Ferdinand, declaring that the peace of Europe would be endangered unless he reformed his government and treated his political prisoners with more humanity. This protest made no impression on the hard-hearted king and his cruel assistants; and the two Governments recalled their ambassadors, and broke off all diplomatic intercourse with the court of Naples in October, 1856.

After this there was a desperate conflict between the absolute and the revolutionary factions in the kingdom of Naples. In November, 1856, Baron Bentivegna raised the standard of rebellion in Sicily, but was vanquished, and perished on the scaffold with various of his confederates. On the 5th of January, 1857, the king's life was attempted by a soldier named Milano; and the execution of the criminal did not deter others from similar attempts. A steamer laden with arms for the Government was blown up in the harbour of Naples. Armed bands, united in a secret bond, called *Camorra*, wandered through the country, and turned the general confusion to account for purposes of pillage and robbery; anarchy and despotism strove everywhere for the mastery; and, to add to the general devastation, an earthquake, in December, 1857, destroyed 20,000 dwellings and nearly 10,000 human lives. The king dared no longer trust himself in his capital; he returned to Caserta with his family, and, surrounding himself with a numerous garrison of troops, admitted only his confidential agents to his presence. The presence of Mazzini in Genoa in the summer of 1857 raised the excitement in the whole peninsula to a feverish height. A number of political refugees embarked in the steamer *Cagliari*, and proceeded to the Neapolitan island of Ponza. Their leader, Pisicane, set free the political prisoners confined there, and, reinforced by them, raised the flag of insurrection at Sapri. The enterprise was crushed in the commencement by the Neapolitan troops, Pisicane and some of his companions perished, and the *Cagliari* was seized, her crew, among whom were two English engineers, being put in prison. It was not until the next year that the menaces of England and Sardinia procured the release of the ship, and the surrender of the imprisoned Englishmen. These events compelled the king to place himself more and more in the hands of the absolutist faction, who continually alarmed him by reports of conspiracies, and urged

him to the most ferocious measures. Struck at length by a mortal disease, he gave orders on his deathbed for the deportation of a number of political prisoners, among whom was Poerio, to America. But during the voyage they rose against the captain, whom they compelled to land them in Ireland. The majority of them returned to Italy, and afterwards took service in the Sardinian army.

Napoleon III.; His Attitude towards Italy.



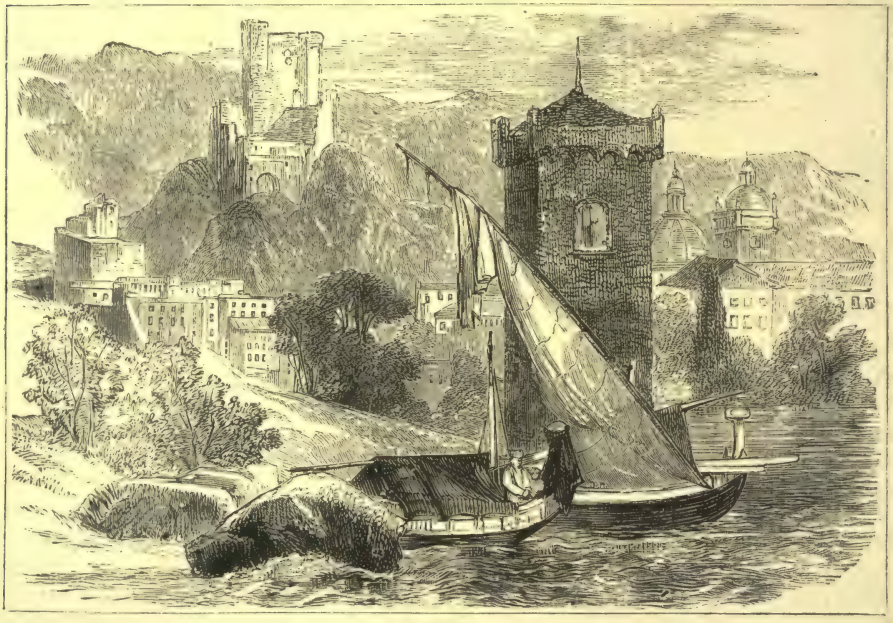
After long preparation, war at length broke out in Northern Italy. The growing excitement throughout the Peninsula rendered it incumbent upon the Sardinian Government to place itself at the head of the movement, to inscribe the independence, unity, and self-government of Italy as the motto upon its banner, and to advance hand-in-hand with the men of progress; otherwise it would have lost its influence on affairs through the action of the secret societies, and would have carried no weight with the national party. It was an advantage to the King of Sardinia that the Piedmontese was the only national reigning family in Italy; for in Naples, Tuscany, and Parma, descendants of the Bourbons or the Hapsburgs sat upon the various thrones. That in the strained condition of affairs between Sardinia and Austria war was only a question of time, was apparent to every one; and the Italians felt themselves more attracted towards a king of their own race and blood than to ruling families from foreign lands, who sought support, not from the people, but from their powerful relatives beyond the Alps.

Fortunately for Sardinia, Austria was at that time quite isolated. Its attitude in the Crimean war had drawn upon it the hostility of Russia, without conciliating the confidence and friendship of the Western Powers. With Prussia no permanent understanding could be expected; the rivalry between the two nations and their mutual distrust was too deeply rooted for any frank and durable alliance; and the many-headed German "Bund," or confederation of smaller States, was unable to speak or act authoritatively in the great transactions of the world. Napoleon III. was also seriously bent upon effecting a reconciliation of Russia with France and Sardinia, and bringing about a friendly understanding between those Powers, which should render the reconstruction of the Holy Alliance, shattered by the Crimean war, an impossibility.

Accordingly, when, in the autumn of 1856, the Dowager-Empress Alexandra of Russia visited the baths of Nice, she was welcomed by Victor Emmanuel with every mark of respect and attention; and when, in the following year, a Russian steamship company wished to purchase the harbour of Villafranca, ostensibly as a coaling depôt, the Sardinian Government received the proposal with the most obliging acquiescence. Russian men-of-war were soon cruising in the Mediterranean. No less successful were the endeavours of Napoleon III. to secure the friendship of Russia for France. After

consolidating the Anglo-French alliance anew, during a visit paid to Queen Victoria at Osborne, on which occasion the two ministers Walewski and Palmerston were present, the French Emperor had an interview with the Czar of Russia at Stuttgard, in September, 1857; and though the meeting bore only the ostensible appearance of a friendly meeting, it had this great advantage for France, that the French Emperor was acknowledged as the equal of the Russian potentate; and from that time the relations between the two Powers became open and friendly.

In Germany, likewise, Napoleon sought to awaken slumbering sympathies by instituting the Helena medal, for the surviving soldiers of his uncle's armies. In all these transactions the secret purpose was to destroy Austria's power and preponderance in Italy, and to support the efforts of a Government in the Italian peninsula, that had the sympathies of the people on its side,



LERICI.

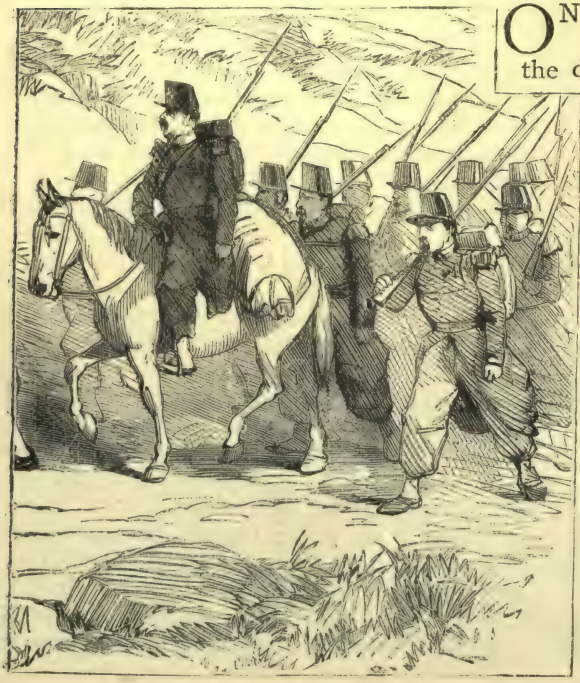
while at the same time it was too weak to show ingratitude to France, or to maintain itself without the continued assistance of that country in the future. That he was also bent upon securing an increase of territory for France soon became manifest. Nevertheless, however disturbed the state of things in Italy might be, the cautious Emperor might perhaps have been less ready to take the field once more "for an idea," but for an incident that made a great impression upon him. This incident was nothing less than an attempt upon his life.

On the 14th of January, 1858, as he was driving to the opera-house with the Empress Eugénie, three hollow bombs were launched against his carriage, and burst with such fatal effect that the street was strewn with dead and wounded, the windows in the neighbouring houses were shattered, and the Emperor and Empress themselves did not escape without slight injuries. Nevertheless, they appeared at the opera, and sat out the whole of the per-

formance, during which time the perpetrators of the crime were discovered and apprehended. The chief conspirator was Felice Orsini, one of those daring Italians who allow themselves to be impelled by hatred and passion to the most desperate enterprises, and in whose eyes even death loses its terrors. Formerly a member of the constituent assembly in Rome, afterwards a prisoner in Mantua, he had escaped from his dungeon and fled to England, where, with three associates, Gomez, Pieri, and Rudio, he had manufactured the deadly implements of his crime. These were pear-shaped bombs, filled with explosive substances, and covered in such a manner with percussion-caps, that they would burst wherever they were thrown. The Emperor was deeply moved by this attempt. He had himself once been a member of an Italian secret society, and had taken the oath of initiation; among his former companions he was looked upon as a traitor, and accordingly was doomed to die. At his examination, Orsini openly avowed that from his youth upwards all his thoughts and efforts had been directed towards the liberation of his country, and vengeance upon Austria; that he had long looked upon Napoleon as the only man through whom these hopes could be realized; but that as the Emperor would not fulfil his task, and instead of a helper had become a hindrance to the liberation of Italy, he had looked upon his destruction as a necessary step. In February a letter was published, in which Orsini, writing from his prison, conjured the Emperor to fight for the freedom of Italy. The letter concluded with these words: "Remember that the Italians shed their blood for Napoleon the Great. Liberate my country, and the blessings of twenty-five millions of citizens will follow you to posterity." On the 13th of March, Orsini and Pieri perished on the scaffold, and their confederates were transported to the penal colonies in South America. The constancy with which the desperate conspirator met his fate, and the love for his country expressed in his last words, created general sympathy; accordingly a great sensation was created when, on the 31st of March, a Turin newspaper published a second letter, said to have been likewise written by Orsini to Napoleon, two days before his death. In this letter he thanked the Emperor for publishing his former appeal, declaring that he took it as a proof that the wishes and aspirations therein expressed for Italy had found an echo in the Emperor's heart, and announced his fixed conviction that Napoleon would be a helper to his oppressed country. "As I go forward to meet my death," he wrote, "it is a great consolation to me that your Majesty is imbued with true Italian principles." Whether these letters were genuine or not, they fulfilled their object;—Orsini dead attained the purpose that Orsini living had tried in vain to achieve. While the attempted assassination became a pretext for depriving France of all liberty, by the "law of safety" of the 28th of January, Napoleon, in conjunction with Cavour, set about administering to the testament of Orsini. But it was requisite, as a preliminary, to restore the good feeling with England, which various circumstances had conspired to disturb. In England the French Emperor was blamed for having, by his conciliatory attitude, caused the conditions of peace in the late war to be unduly favourable to Russia, whereby the results attained had been disproportionately small in view of the sacrifices made by the country. The English were, moreover, inclined to look with some uneasiness upon the advances made towards an understanding with Russia, which threatened a new alliance. The French Government, on the other hand, had been offended by the fact that all opponents of the Emperor and his system—Orleanists, republicans, Mazzini and his companions—found a secure asylum in England;

that Mazzini and his fellow-conspirators were allowed to manufacture their murderous implements in Birmingham without let or hindrance; that the French Dr. Bernard, indicted for complicity in the Orsini plot, had been acquitted by a jury; and that the Queen of England had taken the part of Belgium when the Emperor assumed a threatening attitude towards that petty kingdom because it failed to exercise sufficient supervision over strangers. The hostile utterances of the official Parisian press, and an address presented by a number of colonels and generals to the Emperor full of boastful and threatening expressions against the English nation, increased the irritation. But Napoleon averted the danger of a serious breach. The acquiescence and neutrality of England were necessary to him for carrying out his designs in Italy; consequently the despatches were softened and rendered conciliatory in tone; and the English Government, occupied as it was with the suppression of a mutiny in India, was prompt to grasp the outstretched hand of amity. Palmerston, the steady friend of Napoleon, persuaded Queen Victoria to grace with her presence the opening of the new Government docks at Cherbourg, in August, 1858, though the fortifications at that port were calculated, in case of a war, to serve as a bulwark and point of defence against England; and by this token of confidence and friendship the interrupted relations of kindness were restored. In the autumn of the same year Count Cavour and the Emperor Napoleon had a private meeting at Plombières in the Vosges district, at which the plans concerning Italy were discussed, and the necessary preliminaries adjusted. The marriage of Prince Napoleon Bonaparte, the son of Jerome, youngest brother of the great Napoleon, with the Princess Clotilda, the young daughter of Victor Emmanuel, was a token of the closer alliance of the two royal houses.

MAGENTA.

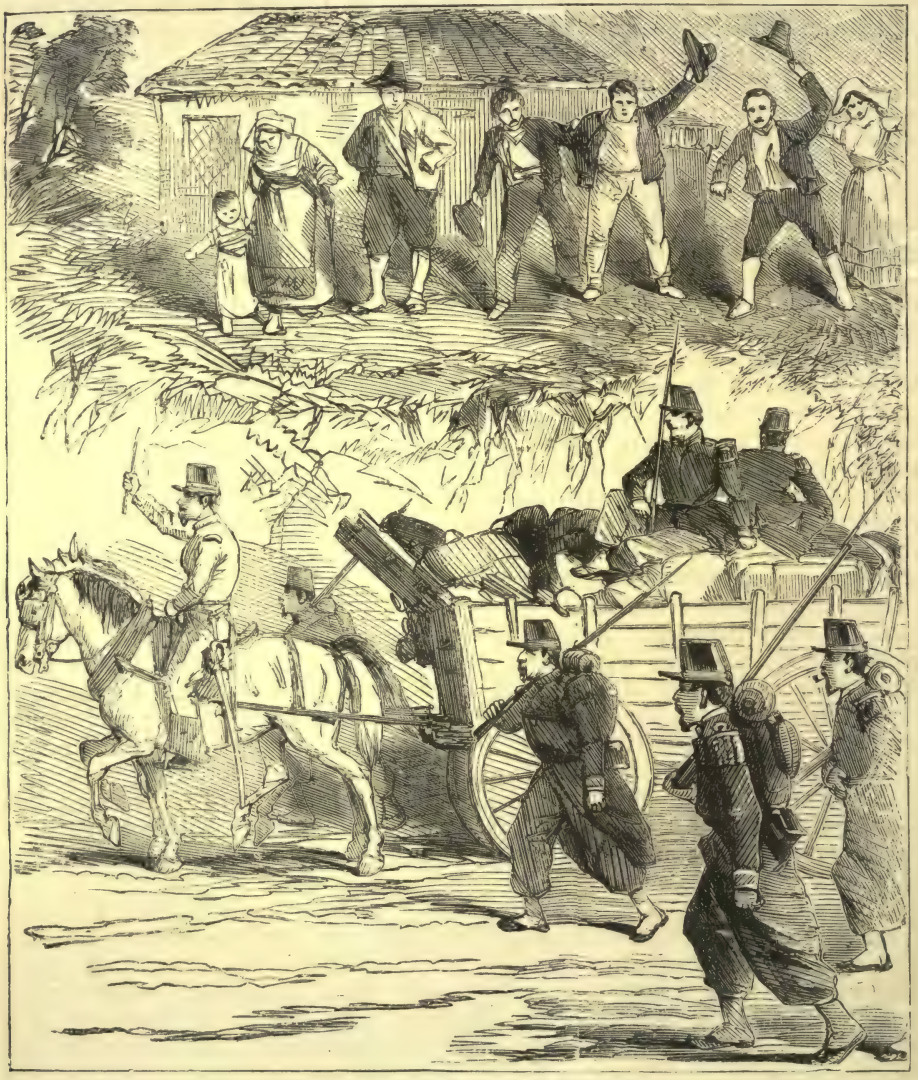


ON New Year's Day, 1859, when, according to custom, the diplomatic corps attended at the Tuileries to congratulate the Emperor, Napoleon addressed the following significant words to the Austrian ambassador, Baron Hübner: "I regret that our relations are not so cordial as I should wish, but I beg you to report to the Emperor that my personal sentiments towards him remain unaltered." These expressions could only apply to warlike events in Italy; and if there was ever a doubt on the subject, it was removed when shortly afterwards, at the opening of the Chambers in Turin, Victor Emmanuel declared that Sardinia could no longer remain indifferent

to the distressful cry for help that was arising from every part of Italy. Austria was not altogether taken by surprise at this turn of affairs. Her position with regard to Italy had long been an unendurable one. The hostile attitude of Sardinia, the welcome given by that State to every fugitive and every enemy of the Empire, the encouragement given to the formation of free corps, and the efforts made on all hands to increase the military forces of Sardinia, had compelled the Austrian Government to increase the armies stationed in Italy—a proceeding that greatly embarrassed the finances of the Empire, and rendered the burden of taxation heavier than ever. A condition of things always wavering between peace and war, such as had been endured for a time, was worse than war itself; for war was inevitable, while the existing state of things was like that of an open wound, which must be closed before health could be restored. Accordingly, the Austrian Government took up the gauntlet flung down by Sardinia. The Austrian armies were further reinforced, Lombardy was declared in a state of siege, and every measure was adopted that might secure the Italian possessions from assault. Austria refused to recognise the necessity, insisted on in France and Italy, of a "revisal of treaties," or the new principle of the "rights of nations" and "consideration of nationalities." But before the sword was drawn, diplomacy made a few useless efforts to bring about an understanding and a peaceful settlement. Though little credence was given to the reiterated assurance of Napoleon that the motto he had chosen—"the Empire is peace"—had not lost its significance, the English ambassador, Lord Cowley, betook himself to Vienna, to try and obtain concessions from the Austrian Government. While negotiations were still proceeding, Russia suddenly came forward with the proposal of a Congress for the settlement of the Italian question. But as Austria required that the treaties of 1815 should form the basis of negotiation, and insisted on a general disarmament as a preliminary, the idea of a Congress was not carried out. Equally futile was an attempt at mediation on the part of Prussia, whose intervention was eagerly sought at that time in Vienna. Under such circumstances, further delay could only be disadvantageous to Austria, inasmuch as her enemies would gain time to complete their preparations, while the financial position of Austria became more and more embarrassed through the necessity of maintaining a great armed force. The Vienna Cabinet therefore at length despatched an ultimatum to the Sardinian Government, on the 23rd of April, 1859, demanding than within three days the army should be placed on a peace footing and the free corps dismissed, otherwise war would ensue.

The answer from Turin was a refusal. Thereupon field-marshal Gyulai received orders to cross the Ticino. Thus, after an interval of ten years, the beautiful plains of Northern Italy, so often the scene of strife between European nations, became once again the theatre of war. Austria was heavily blamed for commencing hostilities, and taking the first step in a struggle which, however, could not have been avoided. The neutral Powers expressed their disapprobation, and Napoleon took advantage of this circumstance to issue a manifesto, in which he accused Austria of breaking the peace, by invading the territory of the king of Sardinia, the ally of France; and he declared that he considered it his duty to oppose the ambition and rapacity of a State that arrogated to itself the right of dictating as far as the Alps, and which saw in the existence of every free State a menace to its own power. The fault of Austria, however, was not in the fact that it tore away the hypocritical mask, and frankly preferred open war to uncertain peace, but in

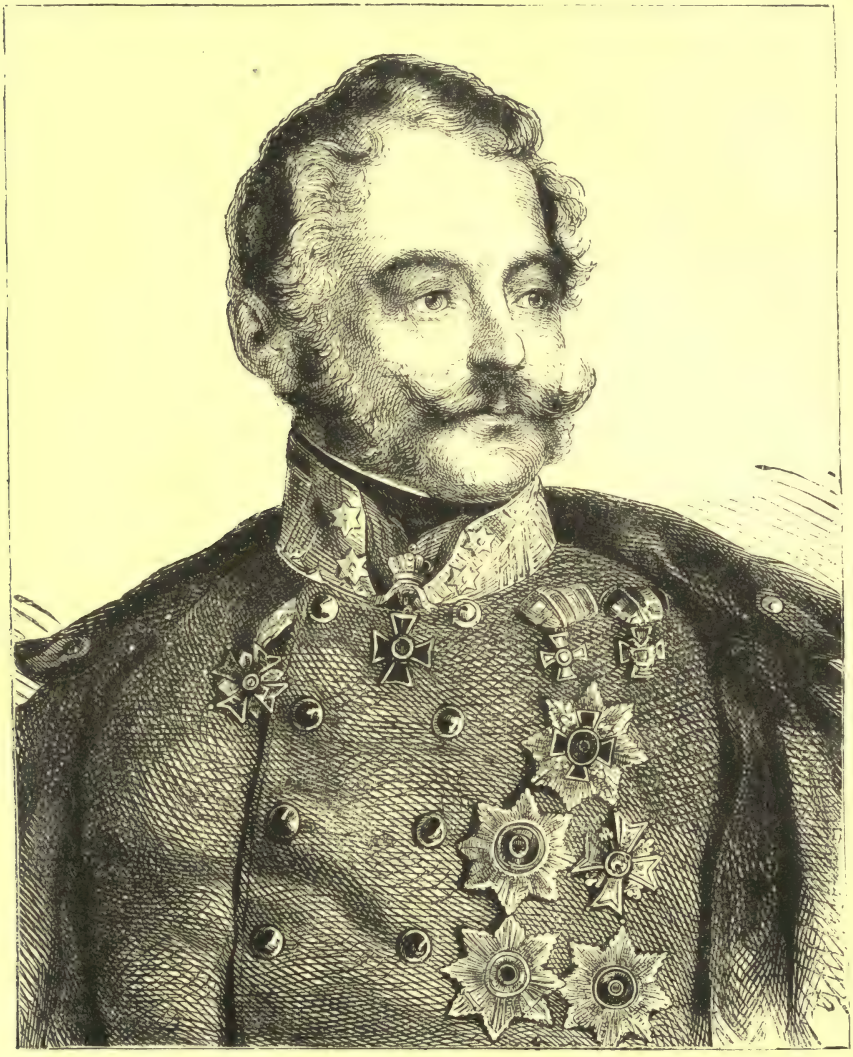
the endeavour to maintain a decayed and untenable system, entirely opposed to the spirit of the age, and rightly condemned by the nation. It was fated to gain experience by sorrow and disaster. With the field-marshal Radetzky, who had died in January, 1858, before the commencement of the war, the warlike fortune of the Austrian Empire had passed away. There were efficient



WELCOME TO THE FRENCH IN ITALY.

men such as Hess, Benedek, and others, who had proved their talent as leaders; but court favour and privileges of birth were more considered than genius and experience; and it was to the advantages of birth and court favour that Franz Gyulai, a member of a noble Hungarian family, who had never until then taken a prominent military position, owed his elevation as commander-in-chief of the Emperor's forces in Italy.

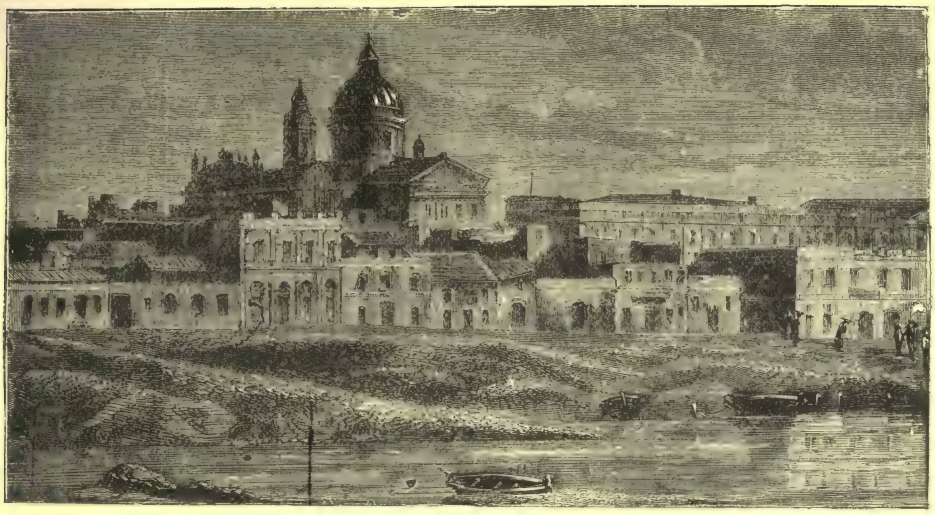
In Sardinia and France it had not been anticipated that the war would begin so soon, for the attempts of the neutral Powers had not been altogether abandoned. It would therefore not have been difficult for the Austrian general to have turned this state of affairs to his advantage at the beginning, by attacking the French auxiliaries separately, as they crossed the Alps in



GENERAL COUNT GYULAI.

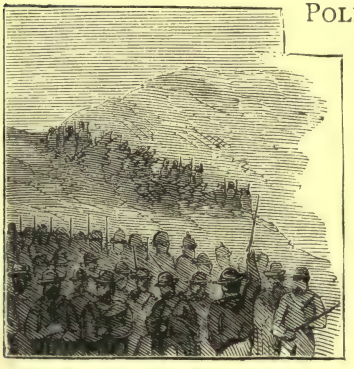
various detachments, and by preventing the junction of the entire Sardinian and French forces. But instead of marching resolutely upon the capital, Gyulai established himself in the Lomellin district between Tesin and Sesia, and remained there inactive, till the country around was deluged by the rains. By this dilatory conduct he gave the Sardinians time to concentrate their army of about 80,000 men round the fortress of Alessandria, where, in May,

various French divisions formed a junction with them; while Garibaldi, with his mountaineers, posted himself at the foot of the range, to harass the right wing of the Austrians, and aid the operations of the army in chief. The popularity of his name brought volunteers to his banner from every direction; and his appearance in the northern lake region produced an extraordinary effect among the Italian population. In the middle of May, Napoleon himself appeared in Italy. He had made a serious study of the art of war, and the introduction of rifled cannon of longer range than any yet known gave a great advantage to his troops; and although, content with the title of commander-in-chief, he left the strategical conduct of the war to his experienced generals, his presence acted upon the soldiery as an incentive to valour; and the glorious name he inherited awakened old recollections among Frenchmen and Lombards alike, and his person became the central point, from which all movements emanated, and were directed according to a fixed plan towards a definite object. How correctly he had estimated the sympathies and wishes of his soldiers was shown in the first order of the day, issued by him on the 12th of May, in which he referred to the glorious deeds achieved by their fathers under his uncle's command upon those plains, and anticipated a similar result for their present enterprise. The Austrian commander-in-chief, on the other hand, failed altogether to rise to the height of his task. He had missed the favourable moment for attacking, and was now only able to keep up a defensive warfare, and endeavour to maintain his position, leaving all the advantages of action and free movement to the enemy. As he was quite uninformed as to the position of the foe, he sent Count Stadion with 12,000 men to make a reconnaissance. On the 20th of May, Stadion encountered the French at Montebello, and after a gallant defence was compelled to retreat. Gyulai now directed his attention towards that quarter, anticipating that the enemy would make the chief attack there. But Napoleon had determined to march northward from Alessandria, to throw himself upon the right and weaker wing of the Austrians, and to advance as soon as possible upon Milan. While the chief army marched from Alessandria to Vercelli, and Canrobert, after encountering an obstinate resistance from the Austrian general Zobel, occupied the bridge at Palestro, Garibaldi and his volunteers pushed forward along the mountains to Como, and were already on the way to Monza, when, on the 1st of June, Gyulai sent off General Urban to defend the Lombard capital, and then commenced his retreat across the Ticino. But Napoleon lost no time in invading the Lombard territory. His rapid advance at the head of his guard might have proved pernicious to him at the bridge of Buffalora but for the opportune arrival of the other divisions of troops under MacMahon, Canrobert, and Niel. On the 5th of June was fought the battle of Magenta, in which all unity of plan and command was wanting on the Austrian side; and the various commanders, Clam-Gallas, Lichtenstein, and Zobel, being left to themselves, were beaten in detail by the French. The bravery with which the Austrian soldiers advanced aroused the admiration even of the victors, though the army suffered the greatest privation and distress through the dishonesty and peculation of contractors and officials. Never did the rottenness and the evils of the Austrian official system appear in more repulsive and disastrous plainness than in this Italian campaign.



THE KINGDOM OF ITALY.

POLITICAL STATE OF ITALY.—IDEAS OF THE PEOPLE.—ISOLATED POSITION OF AUSTRIA.—PRINCIPLE OF NON-INTERVENTION.—BATTLE OF SOLFERINO, AND TREATY OF VILLAFRANCA.—TRANSFER OF LOMBARDY TO FRANCE, AND THEN TO SARDINIA.—TREATY OF ZURICH.—SAVOY AND NICE CEDED TO FRANCE BY VICTOR EMMANUEL.—PROGRESS OF THE WORK OF UNIFICATION.—FRANCIS II., KING OF NAPLES.—EXPEDITION OF GARIBALDI TO SICILY.—HIS RAPID PROGRESS.—ADVANCE TO THE MAINLAND.—ENTRY OF GARIBALDI INTO NAPLES.—EVENTS IN THE STATES OF THE CHURCH; GAETA.—THE KINGDOM OF ITALY.—RETIREMENT OF GARIBALDI.—HIS SECOND ATTEMPT.—ASPROMONTE AND ITS CONSEQUENCES.



POLITICAL SITUATION; IDEAS OF THE PEOPLE.

THE prize of the victory of Magenta was the acquisition of Lombardy. Gyulai, unable to collect the scattered divisions of the army around him, and to risk a new engagement, at once gave orders for a general retreat. Already in the two following days Milan was evacuated with a haste that resembled flight. The fortifications of Pavia and Piacenza were blown up, and the garrisons called away from all the towns. On the 8th of June, Napoleon entered Milan side by side with Victor Emmanuel, amid the loudest and heartiest acclamations of the people, while the Austrian troops continued their retreat without interruption, and did not take up a new position until they arrived

at the Mincio, where they were protected by the Quadrilateral, the four fortresses of Peschiera, Mantua, Verona, and Legnano.

These misfortunes of Austria in the field soon brought about the fall of some other Governments. Already in April the grand duke Leopold of Tuscany, though his rule was less oppressive and hated than that of the other Italian potentates, had been obliged by the general defection of the army and of the officials, to quit Florence, and place himself under the protection of



MOUNTED GARIBALDIAN VOLUNTEERS.

Austria; whereupon a provisional Government had been established under the protectorate of Victor Emmanuel. After the battle of Magenta the Duchess Louisa of Parma also quitted her country, with her young son Robert, and betook herself to Switzerland; and a few days afterwards the Duke of Modena sought shelter in the Austrian camp beyond the Mincio. Everywhere the Italian flag was planted, and adhesion to Sardinia demanded. Colonel Anviti, of Parma, a redoubted favourite of the duke at the time of the reaction, having shown himself in public, perished by the daggers of the infuriated populace, on the 7th of October, 1859. Bologna also threw off its allegiance to the Pope, and proclaimed the dictatorship of the King of Sardinia. This example was followed by various other towns in the States of the Church; and already at

that time the greater portion of the territory of the Pope would have repudiated its allegiance to Rome but for the bloody capture of the town of Perugia by the Pope's Swiss troops, which caused such terror that in Ancona, Ravenna, Ferrara, and other places, the papal rule was still maintained. During these occurrences great excitement prevailed in Germany. Austria made great efforts to induce Prussia and the federal Governments to take part in the contest, and represented the interference on behalf of the Austrian Government as a duty of self-preservation. For the war, which was now carried on along the banks of the Po, might soon be transferred to the Rhine. For a time it appeared that public opinion, which in Bavaria and Southern Germany declared itself loudly for alliance with Austria, would coerce the Governments into acquiescence. Preparations were made for war; the garrisons of fortresses were strengthened; Prussia gradually placed its whole military force upon a war footing. But various circumstances conspired to weaken the enthusiasm and readiness for the combat. It soon became manifest that the loudest voices for Austria issued from a military camp that had manifested little interest for national questions, and that the desire to uphold Austria arose less from patriotism than from a wish to guard individual interests and separate and selfish aims of precedence and of creed. The Liberal party and the Protestant north accordingly felt little inclination to assist a Power that would only strengthen their opponents—a Power that perseveringly upheld the Concordat with Rome, and would only employ its victory in holding down the German efforts for unity and freedom, to tighten the loosened bonds of the "police state," and give the government into the hands of the clericals and of the men of reaction. The momentary military enthusiasm also was quicky dispelled, in view of the miserable condition of the army and the absence of preparation for war in the federal States of Germany; and the English Government, moreover, declared that it would not protect German merchant ships against French ships of war and privateers if any encouragement were given to Austria, whose invasion of the Sardinian territory was designated as a flagitious proceeding—unless, indeed, the Governments were personally attacked by France. In Frankfort the Russian ambassador, Gortschakoff, set up the principle that the Federal Union was only defensive in its nature, and consequently had not the right to interfere with offensive operations in a foreign war. For Russia did not forget that Austria had been ungrateful for services formerly rendered, and accordingly rejoiced in the humiliation of that State.

Similar sentiments were entertained by the majority of the Berlin ministry. There was naturally no disposition, by ill-considered intervention, to transfer the theatre of war to the Rhine districts, and to plunge the Fatherland into distress and danger, for the profit of a State whose misfortunes were the consequence of its own misrule, and which had always looked with an envious and an evil eye on Prussia. Thus the warlike preparations in Prussia were undertaken only to protect that country and the federal territories, and in order to be ready to meet certain eventualities, without abandoning the policy of independence; especially as France gave the assurance that the war should be "localised," or confined to the Italian territory, thus taking away every motive for intervention.

SOLFERINO AND VILLAFRANCA.



WHEN Austria at length became convinced that no help could be expected from Prussia and the rest of Germany, it was determined to try the fortune of war once more on its own hand. To raise the courage of the Austrian troops the Emperor Francis Joseph, following the example of Napoleon III., himself undertook the chief command, and the incapable Gyulai was relegated to retirement and obscurity. But under the new leader success did not return to the Austrian arms. The soldiers, whose valour and zeal were everywhere acknowledged, were so anxious to retrieve the misfortune of Magenta, and restore the prestige of their arms, that the Emperor determined to quit his strong position in the Quadrilateral, and, crossing the Mincio, to assume the offensive; but the second great encounter with the enemy brought fresh disaster to Austria, in consequence of strategical errors.

The Austrian army, superior in numbers to its opponents, was posted in a half-circle between the Mincio and Chiese, with the intention of pressing forward from these points upon a centre. But the line was extended too far, and the centre was comparatively weak, and without reserves. Napoleon, who had received complete intelligence of the position of the Austrian army, accordingly directed his chief strength against the enemy's centre, which rested upon a height near the village of Solferino. Here, on the 24th of June, after a murderous conflict, in which the French commander-in-chief hurled continually renewed masses against the decisive position, while on the other side the necessary reinforcements failed, for want of unity of plan and decision of action, the heights were at length won by the French troops in spite of heroic resistance on the part of the Austrian soldiers,—the Austrian line of battle was cut through, and the army thus divided into two separate masses. A second attack which Napoleon promptly directed against Cavriano had a similar result; for the commands given by the Austrian generals were confused, and had no general and definite aim. The fate of the battle was already in a great measure decided, when a tremendous storm broke forth, that put an end to the combat at most points, and gave the Austrians an opportunity to retire in good order. Only Benedek, who had twice beaten back the Sardinians at various points, continued the struggle for some hours longer. On the French side Marshal Niel had pre-eminently distinguished himself by acuteness and bravery. It was a day of bloodshed, on which two great Powers had measured their strength against each other for twelve hours. The Austrians had to lament the loss of 13,000 dead and wounded, and left 9,000 prisoners in the enemy's hands; on the side of the French and Sardinians the number of killed and wounded was even greater, for the repeated attacks had been made upon well-defended heights, but the number of prisoners was not nearly so great.

The battle of Solferino was thus a fresh spray in the garland of victory and



VIEW OF CATANIA, IN SICILY.

fame of the French nation, and contributed not a little to consolidate the imperial throne, and to win for the House of Bonaparte the sympathies of a people at all times peculiarly accessible to the claims of glory and military prowess. But the position of the victorious potentate was not freed from danger and anxiety. The French army had suffered terrible losses in the Italian campaign; to the slaughter in the battles, which had fallen most heavily upon the best troops, the Guard and the Zouaves, were added casualties arising from illness engendered by the pestilential air of the marshes. In Germany the excitement rose to a dangerous height. William I., at this time ruling as Prince Regent of Prussia, looked upon the condition of Europe and the independence of Germany, for which he considered himself responsible, as endangered. He consequently mobilized the whole Prussian army, and at the Federal Diet made a similar proposition, with the condition that the command of all the Federal forces should be entrusted to Prussia. This step was indeed rendered abortive by the opposition of Austria, which even in its distress did not abandon its attitude to the court at Berlin.

The Prince Regent of Austria proposed that, in the event of a general war, Prussia should be nominated as Federal commander-in-chief—an offer which was refused in Berlin, because its acceptance would have placed the Regent under the orders of the Federal council of war at Frankfort; but a warlike advance from the Rhine was not beyond the bounds of probability. The Austrians also occupied, behind the walls of their fortresses, a position from which it would be difficult to dislodge them, especially as they might be readily reinforced from their own country. Napoleon, a man of judgment and deliberation, not carried away blindly, as his uncle had once been, by the thirst for fame and glory, but practising moderation even in the hour of victory, perceived the difficulty of the situation, and determined to build a golden bridge for the vanquished foe, rather than push the fortune of war to the utmost. He had certainly raised the rallying cry of "Freedom for Italy to the Adriatic"; but as the pursuit of this aim would have been too dangerous for the moment, he was content with a smaller prize of victory. Through a young officer who came to beg for the corpse of young Prince Windischgrätz, he offered the Austrian Emperor an armistice, which was speedily concluded at Villafranca. Three days afterwards a personal interview took place between the two Emperors, at which the preliminaries of peace were decided upon. Napoleon directed the attention of the young monarch to the fact that Austria could not expect assistance from any quarter; that both England and Russia were desirous of seeing Italy united into a single State; that Prussia, instead of affording help, would make use of the embarrassments of the Austrian Empire for its own aggrandizement in Germany, and that foreign interventions would probably cause harder conditions to be exacted than those now offered; and probably represented to him, in addition, how a longer duration of the war would enable the revolutionary party in Venetia and other provinces of his empire to take deep root; and probably gave him some hints upon the weaknesses and inefficiency of the conduct of the war.

The French Emperor gained his object. It was settled that Austria should transfer Lombardy, with the exception of Peschiera and Mantua, to France. Italy was to be formed into a federation of States, under the honorary presidency of the Pope, who was to be requested to introduce reforms; no hindrance was to be placed in the way of Austria's requisition that the sovereigns of Tuscany and Parma should be restored to their dominions, provided they were recalled by their subjects and were not reinstated by means of foreign

intervention. Plenipotentiaries of the two Empires were to meet at Zurich for the carrying out of these conditions. Thus, by the Treaty of Villafranca, the beautiful land of Lombardy, for whose possession so much blood had been shed, was transferred to the French Emperor, who handed it over to the King of Sardinia, soon afterwards exacting in exchange the cession by Sardinia of Savoy, and the city of Nice, with the district around it.

The news of the Peace of Villafranca came as a surprise upon Europe, and still more astonishment was created by a manifesto of Francis Joseph, declar-



NEWS OF THE BATTLE OF MAGENTA: "VIVA L'ITALIA."

ing that the Austrian Emperor had made the sacrifice under the conviction that an understanding with the French Emperor would produce more favourable conditions than could be attained if the intervention of the Great Powers were called into action. Prussia protested, but in vain. The remonstrances from Berlin served only to embitter the relations between the two great German States.

Napoleon returned in triumph to his capital. The arrangement at Villafranca, embodied as to its chief points in the Peace of Zurich, destroyed the influence of Austria in the Italian Peninsula, and laid the foundation for the unification of the country. The impulse for the mighty change had been

given, and the further prosecution of the enterprise Napoleon could leave to the Italians themselves. There was no chance that the expelled or fugitive sovereigns would be recalled by their former subjects; for these, on the contrary, hastened in popular assemblies to declare the deposition of the old dynasties, and to cast in their lot with Sardinia. Even Bologna withdrew itself from the papal rule, and expressed a wish to Victor Emmanuel to be taken under his protection; and the king did not decline the offer, though by accepting it he drew upon himself the anger of the Holy Father. Throughout the whole of Romagna the necessary steps were taken for a union with Sardinia; and from the beginning of 1860 a separate ministry was instituted to arrange the affairs of the newly acquired States of Central Italy, to which the name of Emilia was given in remembrance of the old Roman Via Æmilia. The principle of non-intervention set up by England and France was sufficient to help the Italian aspirations for unity to their fulfilment. The confederation of States contemplated by the arrangements at Villafranca and Zurich was destined never to become a reality. Neither Austria nor the Papal Government showed any disposition to introduce reforms, and the new King of Naples, Francis II., departed in no particular from the system of rule pursued by his father Ferdinand. Thus the old Governments themselves prepared the way for their own subversion, by an obstinate adherence to untenable systems. A pamphlet that appeared at the end of 1859 in Paris, entitled "The Pope and the Congress," boldly asserted that the time had come when the temporal rule of the Pope should be restricted to the municipal territory of Rome; and in spite of the indignant repudiation of the idea by the Catholic world, it became a burning question of the period. Nor had the Emperor Napoleon forgotten that the Holy Father had refused to sanction the new French Empire by anointing and crowning its chief.

The first step to the total change of government in Italy was taken in the "annexations" of the year 1860. Through the influence of the Emperor Napoleon and Count Cavour, general votes of the people, in the manner of Plébiscites, were taken in March, 1860. Nice and Savoy declared for union with France; and Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and the Roman Legations expressed their wish for annexation to the kingdom of Sardinia. In the same month Victor Emmanuel personally received the homage of the people in the States thus annexed. The Pope hurled the ban of excommunication against all who took part in these transactions; but this weapon of the Romish pontiff had become blunted in the course of centuries. On the 2nd of April the first Italian parliament was opened, in which not only deputies from Sardinia and Lombardy were present, but also from Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and the Roman Legations.



Progress of the Work of Unification.



THE Treaty of Zurich and the annexations that followed upon it closed the first act of the liberation of Italy. But ever since 1848 the conviction had been spreading among the educated classes in that country that a united Italy could only arise by the spreading of the constitutional monarchy of Sardinia over the whole peninsula; and the national and revolutionary parties now made common cause to achieve this object. The peculiar position of the Pontifical Government, upheld and maintained by a French army of occupation, would have made an attack in that quarter very especially dangerous; therefore Naples, ruled since the demise of Ferdinand II. of infamous memory, in 1859, by his narrow-minded and ignorant son Francis II., was selected as the point of attack. It was a bold undertaking, for the Neapolitan Government possessed a well-equipped and carefully organized army of 150,000 men. But the tyranny of the Government had prepared the ground for the action of the secret societies; and at a critical moment the Swiss troops, on whom the king chiefly depended, were recalled by a decree of the Swiss Parliament at Berne, forbidding citizens of Switzerland to continue in the service of Naples, on pain of loss of civil rights and citizenship in their own country. This occurred just as the followers of Mazzini and Garibaldi were preparing for combined action against the throne of Francis II.

At the beginning of April the signal was given by separate insurrections in Messina and Palermo. These were easily suppressed by the troops in garrison; but though both cities were declared in a state of siege, they gave occasion for demonstrations by which the revolutionary chiefs excited the public mind. On the 6th of May, Garibaldi started with two steamers from Genoa with about a thousand Italian volunteers, and on the 11th landed near Marsala, on the west coast of Sicily. He proceeded to the mountains, and near Salemi gathered round him the scattered bands of the free corps. By the 14th his army had increased to 4,000 men. He now issued a proclamation, in which he took upon himself the dictatorship of Sicily, in the name of Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy. After waging various successful combats under the most difficult circumstances, Garibaldi advanced upon the capital, announcing his arrival by beacon-fires kindled at night. On the 27th he was in front of the Porta Termina of Palermo, and at once gave the signal for the attack. The people rose in mass, and assisted the operations of the besiegers by barricade-fighting in the streets. In a few hours half the town was in Garibaldi's hands. But now General Lanza, whom the young king had despatched with strong reinforcements to Sicily, furiously bombarded the insurgent city, so that Palermo was almost reduced to a heap of ruins, when, by the intervention of an English admiral, an armistice was concluded, which led to the departure of the Neapolitan troops and war vessels and the surrender of the town to Garibaldi, who thus, with a band of 5,000 badly armed followers, had gained a signal advantage over a regular army of 25,000 men. This event had tremendous consequences, for it showed the utter hollowness of the Neapolitan government, while Garibaldi's fame was every-

where spread abroad. The glowing fancy of the southern nation beheld in him the national hero before whom every enemy would bite the dust. And this idea seemed to extend even to the Neapolitan court itself, where all was doubt, confusion, and dismay. The king sought to surround his tottering throne with new safeguards, summoned a Liberal ministry, and offered to re-establish the constitution which his father had first granted in 1848, and had then in the most arbitrary manner withdrawn; but here, as before, the fatal verdict on all these tardy efforts was "too late!" and the proclamation



FRANCIS II., KING OF NAPLES.

only produced increased confusion in the capital and throughout the country. No confidence could be placed in a Government where the throne was surrounded by the most violent contradictions, and where the Queen Dowager exercised the worst and most reactionary influence, endeavouring to undo what the weak young king and his well-disposed consort, Mary of Bavaria, were endeavouring to effect in the way of conciliation; while, on the other hand, the king's two uncles, the Counts of Syracuse and of Aquila, unworthily cringed to obtain popular favour, and threw themselves into the arms of the

revolutionary party. The arrival of Garibaldi was sufficient to set all the combustible materials in a blaze; nor was it long before he appeared. Six weeks after the surrender of Palermo, the "Dictator" marched against Messina. On the 21st of July, General Bosco was compelled, like Lanza, to evacuate the fortress of Melazzo, and a week afterwards Messina, with the exception of the citadel, was given up by arrangement, by the Neapolitan troops. All Europe was astounded at the advance of the great partisan soldier; but his success on the mainland was still more astounding. Hardly



MARY, WIFE OF FRANCIS II. OF NAPLES.

had he landed, almost in the face of the Neapolitan fleet cruising in the straits, before the garrison of Reggio capitulated, and withdrew. Garibaldi made a triumphal progress through the southern part of the Peninsula, meeting with no resistance. At the end of August he was at Cosenza, on the 5th of September already at Eboli, not far from Salerno. His very name seemed to exert a magic influence over the population. In the capital, which had been declared in a state of siege, conflicting counsels rendered all action abortive. On the 6th of September, Francis II. fled from Naples, and retired

with the 40,000 troops who still remained faithful to him, behind the Volturno; and the next day Garibaldi, with a few followers, celebrated his entry into Naples amid frantic acclamations of the whole populace. The foreign Powers remained constant to their principle of non-intervention.

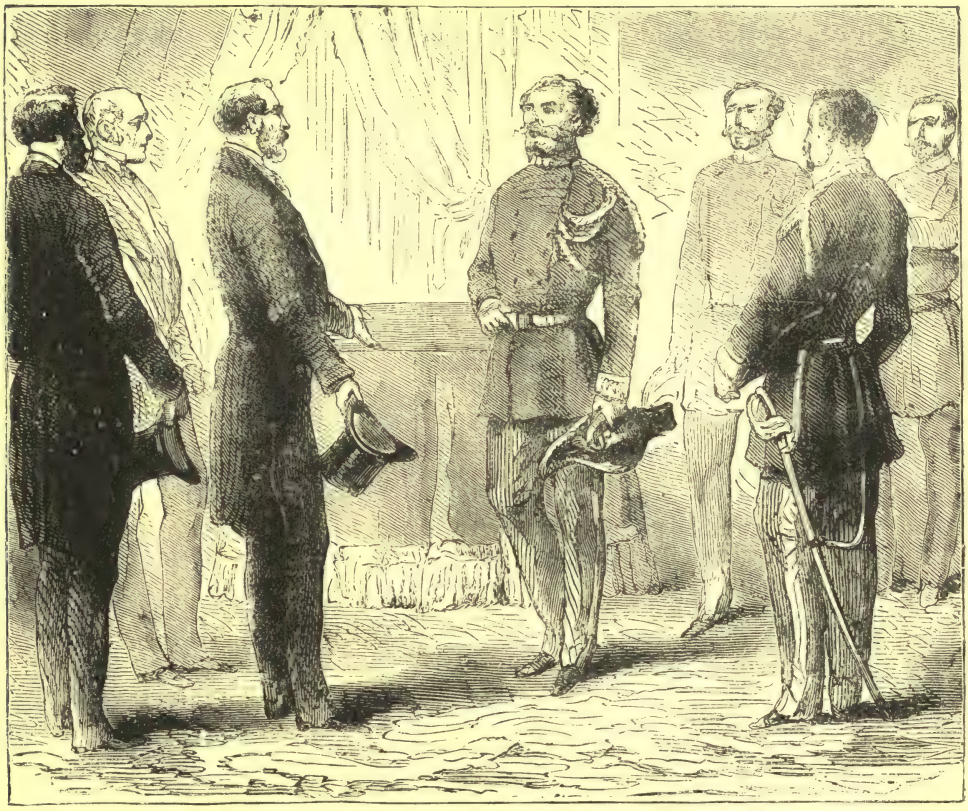
Events in the States of the Church.—Gaeta.



THE excitement of the Italian people soon rose to fever heat. With the impending fall of the Bourbon House in Naples, the aspiration of the country for a united Italy under the sceptre of Victor Emmanuel approached its fulfilment. Garibaldi's declaration that he would "from the Quirinal" proclaim the kingdom of Italy in its capital city found an echo in the hearts of the population, who indicated plainly enough that nothing short of this would content them. The position of the Pope and of Rome became more and more difficult. The Papal Government replied with a decided negative to the requests of the French Emperor for reforms, and contented itself with pronouncing a curse in advance on all who should attempt to lessen the domain of the Church.

During this time the French Government in vain demanded in its negotiations with Rome that the Papal Government should descend from the regions of religion, with which the question had nothing to do, to that of the practical and material interests here concerned; the Vatican kept to its old tactics, identifying its temporal government with its religious interests; for in this way only could a far-reaching agitation be set on foot, and the passions and sympathies of the Catholic nations thoroughly aroused. When it became apparent that Umbria, the Marches, and even the city of Rome itself, anxiously looked forward to being received into the united Italian family, free from the pressure of the clerical yoke, the Ultramontanes raised a louder cry than ever, imploring the French Emperor to hasten to the succour of the Holy Father against the powers of hell, and threatening eternal perdition to all who took part with the spoiler. An appeal was made to all Catholic Christendom to aid the Pope in his distress. The tribute of Peter's pence was industriously collected, and the duty of taking part in the State lottery was impressed on all the faithful; and a general summons was issued, calling upon the able-bodied to enlist in the holy army of the Pope, and take part in the sacred war for the maintenance of the threatened empire of the successor of the apostles. Acquiring confidence from the general excitement, the Church Government was persuaded that "the gates of hell would not prevail against it," and accordingly rejected every overture for compromise. The war minister Merode, the fiery Belgian Ultramontane, sent for his friend, the exiled French general Lamoricière, and gave him the chief command over the Papal troops, a motley throng recruited from many nations. It was hoped that the name of the celebrated French leader would exert a magic influence in Rome on the French garrison troops; for in the distrust that existed between the Vatican and the Tuileries, it was considered that the French garrison was rather intended to watch the Pope than to defend him.

Two courses of action lay open to the French Emperor—either to let the Italian revolution have its free way, in which case Garibaldi would unquestionably have put an end of the Pope's temporal sovereignty, and made Rome the capital of Italy; or to allow his ally Victor Emmanuel to associate himself with the movement, and thus to direct it and keep it within prescribed



DEPUTATION FROM TUSCANY TO VICTOR EMMANUEL.

limits. He chose the latter way; and there is no doubt that through Cialdini and Farini, the two ambassadors of Victor Emmanuel, he gave the King of Sardinia to understand that no obstacle should be put in his way in substituting for the revolutionary dictatorship of Garibaldi a regular constitutional monarchy in Naples, Umbria, and the other territories, so long as Rome itself, and the so-called "patrimony of St. Peter," guarded by French soldiers, was left intact. Accordingly, at the beginning of September, two Sardinian army corps, under Fanti and Cialdini, marched to the borders of the States of the Church. Their arrival was the signal for a general rising of the people. Lamoricière advanced against Cialdini, with whom he fought the battle of Castelfidardo on the 18th of September, 1860. The Papal troops were defeated, and Lamoricière fled with a few followers to Ancona, which fortress was invested by Cialdini on the following day, and was compelled to capitulate on the 29th of September, Lamoricière and the entire garrison becoming prisoners of war. On the 9th of October, Victor Emmanuel himself

appeared at Ancona and assumed the chief command, declaring that his policy was to unite the progress of the nations with the stability of the government. Lamoricière, "the French Achilles," lived in rigid retirement for five years longer in France, where he died at the age of sixty years, on the 12th of September, 1865.

The object of the king in assuming the chief command was to complete the conquest of the kingdom of Naples, in conjunction with Garibaldi. For though Garibaldi had entered the capital in triumph, the progress on the line of the Volturno had been slow; and the expectation that the Neapolitan army would go over to the invaders in a mass had not been realized. The great majority of the troops remained faithful to the flag, so that Garibaldi, although his irregular bands amounted to more than 25,000 men, could not hope to drive away King Francis, or to take the fortresses of Capua and Gaeta, without the help of Sardinia. Against the diplomatic statesman Cavour, who fostered no illusions, and saw the condition of affairs in its true light, the simple, honest Garibaldi cherished a deep aversion. He could never forgive Cavour for having given up Nice; Garibaldi's native town, to the French. On the other hand, he felt attracted toward the king, in whom he thought to recognise the man raised up by Providence for the liberation of Italy. Accordingly, when Victor Emmanuel entered Sessa, at the head of his army, Garibaldi was easily induced to place his dictatorial power in the hands of the king, to whom he left the completion of the work of the union of Italy. After greeting Victor Emmanuel with the title of King of Italy, and giving the required resignation of his power, with the words, "Sire, I obey," he entered Naples, riding beside the king; and then, after recommending his companions in arms to his Majesty's special favour, he retired to his island of Caprera, refusing to receive a reward, in any shape or form, for his services to the State and its head.

The warlike operations now assumed a sharper character. On the 27th of November the Neapolitan army was compelled to give up the line of the Volturno, and to withdraw behind the Garigliano. After the taking of Capua by the Piedmontese on the 2nd of November, King Francis and the remains of his best troops were forced to take refuge in the fortress of Gaeta. On the maintenance of this position hung the fate of the kingdom and of the Bourbon dynasty in Italy. The defence of this maritime town, on which occasion the unfortunate young queen Mary of Bavaria displayed heroic courage, is the one bright point in the career of Francis II. Effete and rotten as the Bourbon power in Italy had become, the Neapolitan ruler did not fall quite ingloriously. The resistance of the garrison of Gaeta lasted for more than three months. The Emperor of the French appeared disinclined to recognise the plans of aggrandisement of the King of Sardinia, and even, like various other European rulers, withdrew his ambassador from Turin; but the manifestoes of Francis II. to his own people, and his appeals for help to foreign Powers, were disregarded; and the reactionary efforts that were made here and there in his favour assumed the appearance of forays of banditti rather than of regular warfare. At length scarcity in the garrison, typhus, want of warlike munitions, and general discouragement in the garrison, compelled the king to capitulate. On the 13th of February, 1861, he left Gaeta on a French man-of-war, and betook himself with his consort to Rome, where he took up his residence. In the next year the citadel of Messina, and the little fortress of Civitella, likewise surrendered to General Cialdini, and the kingdom of the two Sicilies came to an end. On the 18th of February, King Victor

Emmanuel assembled the deputies of all the States who acknowledged his supremacy, at Turin, around his throne, and with their joyful acquiescence assumed the title "King of Italy" for himself and his successors.

Cavour and the Party of Action.—Garibaldi and Aspromonte.



VICTOR EMMANUEL I. (OF ITALY).

THE unification of Italy into one kingdom, with the exception of Venetia and the papal city of Rome, had thus been accomplished, to the amazement of the civilized world. The results had gone far beyond the expectations and arrangements of the Treaty of Zurich and the first intentions of the French Emperor. Cavour's sagacity, Garibaldi's patriotic unselfishness, and Victor Emmanuel's warlike resolution, the political tact of the educated classes, and even the machinations of Mazzini, had all contributed to this result. But if the great idea of the national development of Italy, which had emanated chiefly from the genius of Cavour, was not to fade away, after a time, like a glorious vision, a few years of rest and peace were indispensably necessary to consolidate and arrange what had been won, and to impress foreign nations with the conviction that the new kingdom was worthy to take rank as a strong and vigorous member in the confederation of the States of the world. The patriots, indeed, acknowledged with suppressed vexation that the work of unification was not complete, so long as the watchword, "Free from the Alps to the Adriatic!" had not been fulfilled. But Napoleon III. had assured the monarchs of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, at a personal interview in October, 1860, that Piedmont should receive no support from France in any attempt upon Venetia. The Turin Cabinet could not think of attacking Austria without foreign aid, and in Rome the French garrison had orders to oppose armed resistance to any attempt upon the Pope's temporal authority. Cavour was exceedingly anxious to effect a compromise with the Papal Power; but his offer to give the Church and the Pope complete independence in all ecclesiastical matters, if the temporal sovereignty were given up, was scornfully rejected; and Rome opposed an iron firmness and determination to all suggestions of change, and utterly refused to co-operate in the forward movement of the time.

In this condition of affairs Cavour was greatly embarrassed by the pressure put upon him by the "Italianissimi," the Hotspurs who kept the people in continual agitation by the watchword, "Rome and Venice," while they filled men's minds with suspicion and distrust towards the new government and the monarchical system generally. It was chiefly Mazzini's followers who maintained this agitation, into which Garibaldi himself was soon drawn. As a military man, and one who had been almost always fighting for republics against monarchical governments, he could not reconcile himself to the slow and sedate policy of Cavour; and on the 20th of April, 1861, he rose in the

parliament of Turin, and bitterly complained of the dissolution of the volunteer army, and of the treatment his followers had received; and counselled a general arming of the people. Cavour contrived to pacify him for a time; but that great statesman and diplomatist died on the 6th of June, 1861, having lived just long enough to see the young kingdom of Italy, the crowning work of his active life, in a hopeful way of progress. It was to be hoped that if moderation was maintained in Italy, the European Governments, of whom several had already acknowledged the new kingdom, would generally follow the example of England and France. Accordingly, Ricasoli, the successor of



BARON RICASOLI.

Garibaldi, was anxious to walk in the footsteps of his predecessor. He renewed negotiations with the Papal Power in Rome, but with no better result than Cavour had attained; on the other hand, he was successful in putting down the system of brigandage in the kingdom of Naples, where General Cialdini, with a considerable force, established and maintained strict order. But Ricasoli's tenure of power was brief. In March, 1862, he resigned, and was succeeded by Rattazzi, who showed himself more favourable to the party of action, incorporating the remains of Garibaldi's volunteer bands in the army, and encouraging the aspiration expressed in the parliament at Turin, that Rome should be the future capital of Italy. This tendency of the minister



GARIBALDI ATTACKED BY ITALIAN TROOPS AT ASPORMONTE.

naturally aroused the most sanguine hopes in the party of action; and an agitation commenced, with the object of incorporating, not only Rome and Venice, but all the Italian-speaking portion of Tyrol and other districts beyond the Adriatic into the new Italian kingdom. At length the Government, in no way inclined for war, was obliged to put down this movement with a vigorous hand; and gatherings in the neighbourhood of Bergamo and Brescia were dispersed by military force.

Unfortunately, Garibaldi, some of whose friends and former companions were among the prisoners made on these occasions, became involved in these lawless proceedings. Distinguished as a patriot and a soldier, and warmly attached by loyalty and by personal liking to the king, he was destitute of political acumen, and was anxious to continue working with revolutionary means, when the time for the employment of such means was past. He determined to undertake against Rome an expedition similar to the one he had directed against Naples two years before. In June he sailed from Genoa and landed at Palermo, where he was soon surrounded by a body of enthusiastic volunteers, anxious to throw off the yoke of foreign domination, and erroneously persuaded that their enterprise had the secret approbation of the Government. But on the 8th of August the king, in an energetic proclamation, repudiated and condemned all irregular and lawless action undertaken in the name of Italy, and the Parliament at Turin made a declaration to the same effect, and warned all Italians against taking part in punishable agitation.

But Garibaldi persisted in his design. When his way was barred by the garrison of Messina, he turned aside to Catania, where he embarked with 2,000 volunteers, declaring he would enter Rome as a victor, or perish beneath its walls. He landed at Melito on the 24th of August, and threw himself at once, with his followers, into the Calabrian mountains. But his enterprise was quickly and disastrously ended. General Cialdini despatched a division of the regular army, under Colonel Pallavicino, against the volunteer bands. At Aspromonte, on the 28th of August, the two forces came into collision. A chance shot was followed by several volleys from the regulars. Garibaldi forbade his men to return the fire of their fellow-subjects of the Italian Kingdom. He was wounded, and taken prisoner with his followers, a few of whom had been slain in the short combat. A Government steamer carried the wounded chief to Varignano, where he was held in a sort of honourable imprisonment, and was compelled to undergo a tedious and painful operation for the healing of his wound. He had at least the consolation that all Europe looked with sympathy and interest upon the unfortunate hero; and a general sense of relief was felt when, restored to health, he was set free, and allowed to return to his rocky island of Caprera.

The day of Aspromonte was a deep humiliation for the party of action, and removed the prospect of gaining Rome as the capital of Italy to the far distance. After various abortive efforts, a treaty was signed in September, 1864, between the Emperor of France and Victor Emmanuel, arranging for the transfer of the capital from Turin to Florence, and for the gradual withdrawal of the French garrison from Rome; the Pope was to be allowed to raise a sufficient army within the two years before this arrangement should come into force, for the defence of the States of the Church, but not large enough to attack the kingdom of Italy. This transfer of the seat of government to Florence excited great discontent, and even popular disturbances at Turin, which the Ministry repressed with such severity that the king dismissed his

advisers and ordered General La Marmora to assemble a new Cabinet. The transfer of the capital to Florence was nevertheless accomplished, renewed disturbances causing Victor Emmanuel to quit Turin suddenly and take up his residence in the famous city of the Arno. In Rome the convention between France and Italy, concluded without consulting the Holy See, excited great anger at the Papal court; and to show how little he and his advisers were disposed to make concessions to the spirit of the times, Pius the Ninth, at Christmas, 1864, astonished the world by issuing an "Encyclical" and a "Syllabus," in which all the developments of political life in modern times, all new ideas and reforms in various Governments, and the results of culture and education, were denounced and anathematized. This remarkable document, framed on the principles of the Middle Ages, convinced the world of the impossibility of negotiating with a State which closed its eyes obstinately to the rights and the life of the present generation of men, and of the failure of

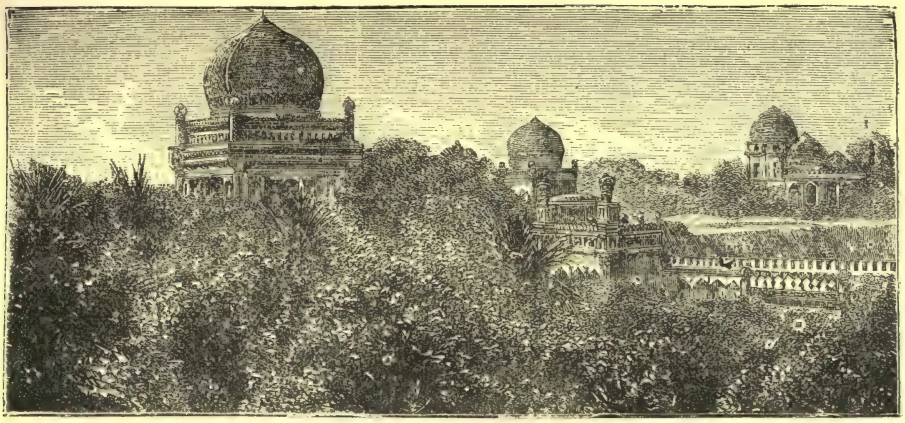


CIVITA VECCHIA, IN THE PAPAL STATES.

such a State, alike in the will and the ability, to grant liberties and make reforms in consonance with the times. Consequently the Encyclical remained without effect. In France the Minister of Justice forbade the publication of the document; and though some of the bishops issued a declaration, it was rather as a protest against the interference of the Government with the Church than a token of acquiescence with the doctrines of the Encyclical. The Italian Government, on the other hand, attached so little importance to this exposition of the principles of a bygone age, that it allowed the bishops to publish it without let or hindrance. The best refutation was given in the Chamber of Deputies, where the introduction of civil marriages, the suppression of convents, and the secularization of ecclesiastical estates was determined upon, and a vigorous effort was made to procure the abolition of capital punishment. Even the Pope himself, a few months later, was so far mindful

of the necessities and realities around him, that he sent an autograph letter to Victor Emmanuel, to procure the re-establishment of the abandoned bishoprics. Though the mission failed, in consequence of the reactionary influences that soon afterwards regained the upper hand, the king voluntarily allowed a number of bishops to return to their dioceses. Though his finances had been greatly embarrassed by the war of liberation, and by the heavy military establishment it was necessary to maintain against Venetia, Victor Emmanuel showed himself willing to undertake a certain portion of the Roman national debt, in return for a recognition of his dignity as possessor of the crown of Italy; but the Pope met every offer of accommodation with an unvarying *non possumus*. But although the difficulties with which the young kingdom had to contend were serious, the nation and the Government continued in the certain confidence that before long an opportunity would occur for Italy to fulfil its destiny and to establish its national unity throughout the whole extent of its borders. In the consciousness of a renewed moral and political life, Italy celebrated in May, 1865, the sexcentenary jubilee of the birth of her great poet Dante Alighieri, as though to fulfil the most ardent wishes of the old Florentine for a great and united Italy.





THE INDIAN MUTINY OF 1857-1858.

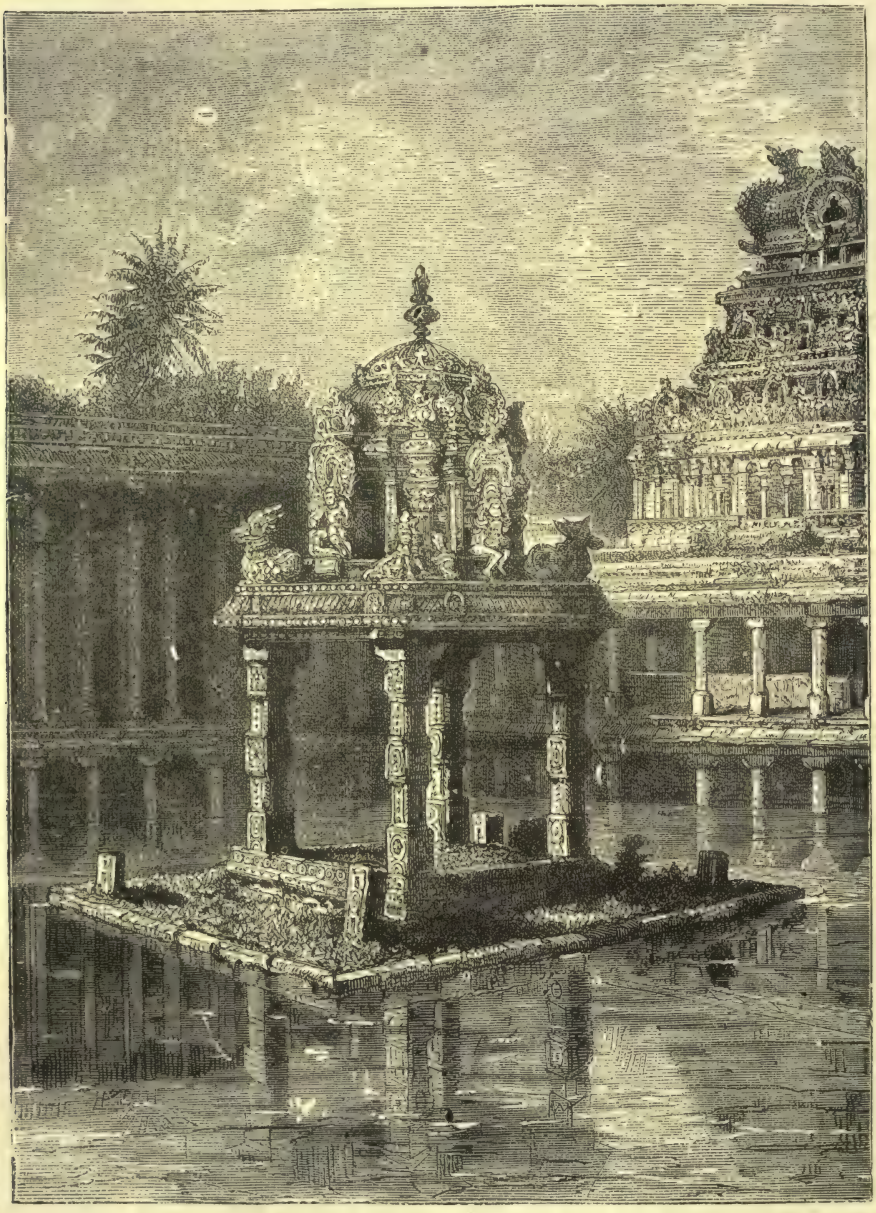
THE CAUSES OF THE MUTINY, AND ITS COMMENCEMENT.—OUTBREAK AT MEERUT.—REBELLION AT DELHI.—MASSACRE AT CAWNPORE.—LUCKNOW.—LAWRENCE AND HAVELOCK.—"LUCKNOW KAVANAGH."—DEFENCE AND RELIEF OF LUCKNOW.—SIR JAMES OUTRAM.—SUPPRESSION OF THE REBELLION.—RECONSTRUCTION OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE.

ORIGIN AND COMMENCEMENT OF THE MUTINY.



FOR a long time there had been a great and continually increasing discontent in India. Complaints were made that the treaties with native princes were not kept, that extortion was practised by which officials grew rapidly and mysteriously wealthy, looking upon India as a field for the acquisition of riches, and that the natives were treated by the governing powers with deep contempt, while every license was granted to the soldiery. The real hidden cause of the discontent, however, lay in the deep hatred felt by the natives, Hindu and Mussulman alike, for the dominant alien race to whom they had been obliged to bow in common subjection; and the fanaticism of the Hindus caused the smouldering elements of discontent to burst out into the flames of insurrection. A secret conspiracy was formed, in which Hindus and Mohammedans were alike participators, the object being to overthrow the dominion of the English. It had been prophesied among the natives that the rule of the foreign masters of India should last only for a hundred years; and a century had just elapsed from the triumph of Clive at Plassey in 1757. Small *chupatties*, cakes of unleavened bread, were secretly passed from hand to hand among the natives, as tokens of comradeship in

the enterprise. This secret conspiracy was the more dangerous as it had made its way into the army; and India was a country governed by the sword.



THE SACRED POOLS, TRICHINOPOLY.

Some cartridges, greased with animal fat, had been distributed to Sepoy soldiers of the Brahmin caste, strict vegetarians, who declared this had been done that they might lose their caste; for by biting the cartridges, they would

break the injunction which compels them to abstain from animal food. The sentence of penal servitude passed upon some of the mutineers became the signal for the breaking out of the revolt. At Meerut, on the Upper Ganges, the Sepoys broke out into rebellion, liberated their comrades who were being led away in chains, and marched in a body to Delhi, the ancient capital of India, and former seat of the Mogul Empire. Here they took possession of the great military magazine, and its warlike stores. Those among the British inhabitants who did not save themselves by immediate flight were barbarously put to death; and the decrepit Akbar, the descendant of the Moguls, an old man of ninety, who lived at Delhi upon a pension granted to him by the East India Company, was drawn from his retirement and proclaimed Emperor of Hindostan by the rebels, his son, Mirza, being associated with him in the government.



THE WELL AT CAWNPORE.

The mutiny spread with terrible rapidity, and massacres of the English took place at Indore, Allahabad, Azimghur, and other towns. Foremost in atrocity stands the massacre perpetrated at Cawnpore by Nana Sahib, the adopted son of the last Peishwa of the Mahrattas, who, after entering into a compact with General Wheeler, by which he promised a free departure to the English, caused the boats in which they were proceeding down the river to be fired upon, the men being thus slain, while the women and children were brought back as prisoners to Cawnpore. Here they were confined for some days in a building, into which murderers were sent who massacred them every one, the mutilated corpses being thrown down a well.

In Oude, the noble-minded Sir Henry Lawrence had defended himself throughout the whole summer in the citadel of Lucknow against the rebels under Nana Sahib with wonderful skill and bravery, until he was killed by the bursting of a bomb, on the 2nd of July. The distress of the besieged

including many ladies and children, who hourly awaited the fate of their compatriots at Cawnpore, was now at its height. At last the war-march of the Scotch Highlanders was heard by one of the ladies, and it proved to be no delusion. At the first intelligence of the events at Delhi and Cawnpore, General Havelock had set out from Calcutta with a small band of men, to rescue his distressed countrymen on the Upper Ganges, and to restore the authority of the law in the disturbed districts. After a short rest in their long journey, at Allahabad, an engagement took place at Futtipur, where the English gained a brilliant victory. Three days later they reached Cawnpore



GENERAL HAVELOCK.

(13th July, 1857), where, in spite of the number and courageous attitude of the Sepoys, Nana Sahib was completely defeated, and his palace, Bithur, was burnt to the ground; while the tyrant hastily withdrew to Oude, in order to prepare the same bloody fate for the garrison of Lucknow as for the unfortunates at Cawnpore, the English entered upon the scene of terror and cruelty, and though they had already distinguished themselves as the "army of revenge," this sentiment was still further heightened by the spectacle of the place of murder. "The ground," says an eye-witness, "was strewn with clotted blood, which here and there was lying ankle-deep. Long locks of hair were scattered about, shreds of women's garments, children's hats and shoes, torn books, and broken playthings. The bodies were naked, the limbs

dismembered. I have seen death in all possible forms, but I could not gaze on this terrible stream of blood."

These bloody scenes demanded speedy action. After having appeased



KAVANAGH DISGUISED BY HIS COMPANIONS.

revenge in the blood of the inhabitants of Cawnpore and of the unfortunate prisoners, Havelock crossed the Ganges, and marched into Oude. Fighting their way through all the overpowering difficulties caused by disastrous

weather and the continual onslaughts of the enemy, Havelock's regiment at last effected a coalition with the reinforcements under General Outram, and together they marched towards Lucknow, which was reached at the end of September. An especial act of heroism was achieved during the siege of Lucknow by Mr. Kavanagh, an official, who offered, disguised as a native, to penetrate through a region swarming with enemies, to communicate with the general of the approaching relieving force. He happily accomplished his dangerous exploit, from which he obtained the honourable nickname of "Lucknow Kavanagh."

Cawnpore Relieved, and the Rebellion Put Down.



With feelings of indescribable relief, the besieged at last heard the pibroch of the Highlanders, the cheerful tones of the Scotch bagpipes, which announced the hour of their deliverance. The danger was not yet passed, however. Havelock and Outram had not more than 2,600 men, while the rebels in the town were 50,000 strong. After fighting their way with heavy losses into the citadel, they found it was impossible, with their small army, to force a retreat through the ranks of the enemy with the women, children, and invalids, surrounded by the swarms of rebels who surged round the walls like a foaming sea. They were compelled, therefore, to shut themselves up, and await fresh reinforcements. Provisions, however, now began to diminish, and they were menaced with the horrors of starvation; but matters did not reach this last extremity. Sir Colin Campbell, the new commander-in-chief, with 7,000 well-equipped troops, was already on the way. He arrived at Lucknow on the 14th of November, attempted a bold and successful attack on part of the fortifications, and liberated the besieged. Eight days afterwards, Havelock died of cholera. His memory was held in high veneration in England.

Since the fall of Delhi, the repression of the insurrection had been regarded as a matter of certainty. Though the rebels in Gwalior and Oude continued the struggle through the whole winter, defeated General Wyndham and captured his encampment, Campbell and Outram revenged the disgrace by repeated triumphs (1858). In the spring, fresh reinforcements arrived from

the Punjaub and Calcutta, while the ranks of the insurgents gradually diminished. In March, after a fierce struggle of five days, the commander-in-chief conquered the town of Lucknow, and permitted the troops to plunder and murder to their hearts' content. In every house were dead or dying, and the corpses of Sepoys lay piled up several feet in height. The booty which the soldiers carried off in the way of jewels and treasures of every kind was enormous. The widowed queen of Oude set out for England, to proclaim the innocence of her son "in the dark countries of the West," and to preserve to her house the shadow of an independent monarchy. She never saw her sunny India again, however; on the return journey she died of a broken heart. Though the rebellion gradually lost force and cohesion after the death of



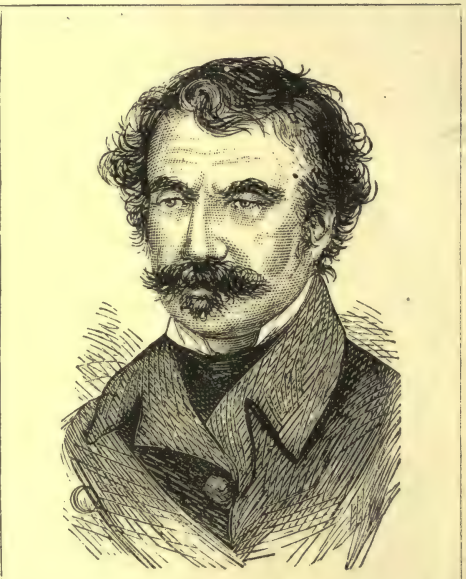
THE MEETING OF SIR JAMES OUTRAM AND GENERAL HAVELOCK.

Tantia Topee on the gallows, the vengeance still continued for yet a year longer. Only the chief rebel, Nana Sahib, and the two heroic women, the Begum of Oude and the Ranee of Jansee escaped to Nepaul. In the course of the year 1858, peace and order again returned to the Anglo-Indian empire, and the Government was able to consider means of reconciliation. By a proclamation of the Queen, all rebels who were not directly implicated in the murder of British subjects, and would return to their duty and allegiance by January, 1859, were to obtain a complete amnesty. This proclamation also announced that the Queen, with the consent of Parliament, had determined to abolish the East India Company, to take the government into her own hands, and to rule India by means of a special Secretary of State and Council. The Indian empire, both within and without, had assumed such gigantic pro-

portions during the last century, that the powers of the Company no longer seemed adequate. Their time was gone by, and the governing power of a great European nation alone seemed to possess the required strength and energy to maintain the conquests in the far East. The government of the whole of Hindostan now lying in the hands of the Queen and the Ministry, the Indian princes entered into a relationship with the English Government, similar to that held by the aristocracy of the mother-country towards the head of the State ; and attempts were also made to bring the Indian possessions into closer connection with the mother-country by suitable institutions on the



COLIN CAMPBELL (LORD CLYDE).



SIR JAMES OUTRAM.

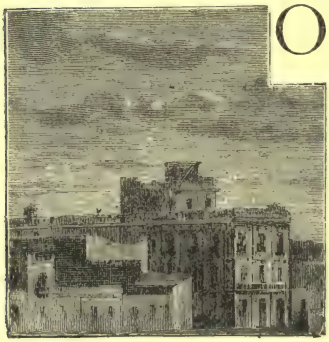
European model, and by the establishment of railways and educational centres. The new policy in India aimed rather at consolidating and strengthening the Empire from within, than at any extension of territory or enlargement of the frontiers of India. The war in the Himalaya district of Bhootan, in 1865, by which a small accession of territory was won, was important as securing the safety of the Empire against incursions of robbers. Fortunately, no civil commotions interrupted the work of reconstruction. The assassination of the Governor-General Lord Mayo, in February, 1872, was not a political crime, but arose from the revengeful feelings of a fanatical Mahommedan.



MEXICO AND MAXIMILIAN.

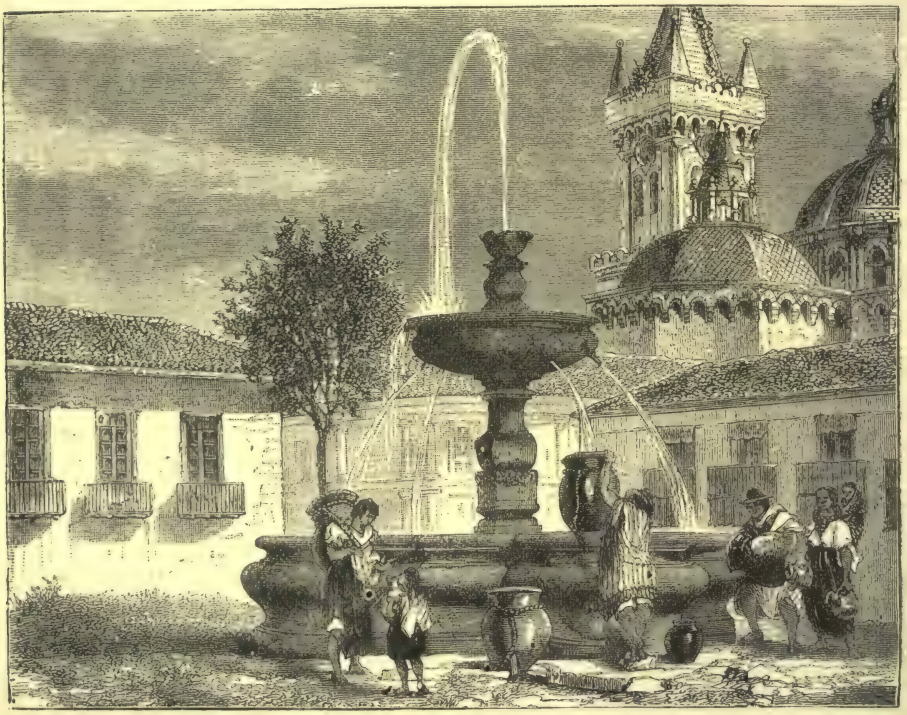
THE FRENCH EXPEDITION TO MEXICO.—CONFUSED STATE OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS. — THE CONVENTION OF LONDON, 1861. — JUAREZ.—ALMONTE.—SIEGE OF PUEBLA.—THE ARCHDUKE MAXIMILIAN OF AUSTRIA CHOSEN EMPEROR OF MEXICO BY A FACTION.—INEFFECTUAL STRUGGLE AGAINST JUAREZ.—INTERVENTION OF THE UNITED STATES.—RETIREMENT OF MARSHAL BAZAINE AND THE FRENCH TROOPS. — EXPEDITION OF MAXIMILIAN AGAINST QUERETARO.—HIS CAPTURE, CONDEMNATION, AND EXECUTION.—CONDITION OF THE STATES IN CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA.

THE FRENCH INVASION.



OF all the States of Central and Southern America, Mexico has experienced the greatest vicissitudes and convulsions. Since its separation from Spain it has nine times changed its form of government; fifty persons succeeded each other in the government within forty-three years, and the number of small and large party risings and military *émeutes* exceeds three hundred. When Santa Anna, in August, 1855, signed his abdication and took ship to Havana, the confusion reached a point of anarchy. At last General Alvarez, an Indian from the south, obtained the presidential dignity, but was opposed by General Felix Zuloaga, who was proclaimed president by the Conservatives; and subsequently a third president, Benito Juarez, was appointed by the party of Puros. The dissensions brought about by the rival presidents afforded the States of North America an opportunity for demanding the right of transit across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec—a demand which was equivalent to a surrender of the whole Mexican trade to the Union. The finances of the State were now in such

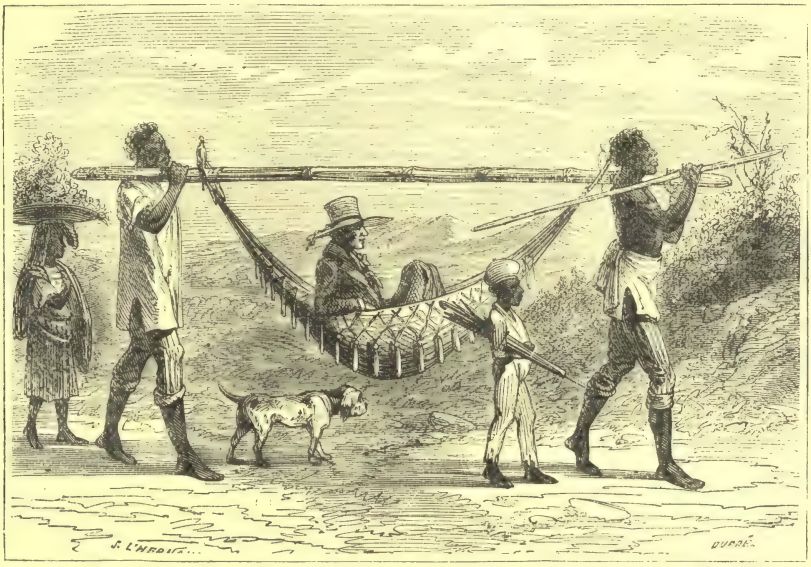
confusion that it was determined to suspend all payments, including interest, on the English debt for two years. The Government of Spain now succeeded in inducing England and France to take joint action against the Republic. In the Convention of London, 31st October, 1861, the three Powers declared "that they found themselves compelled, through the uncertainty of Mexican jurisdiction, to demand greater protection for their subjects and their possessions, and to compel the carrying out of the engagements that had been made by treaty," while admitting the perfect right of the Republic of Mexico to choose its own form of government. This was followed by the despatch of three squadrons and troops of war to America, and the investment of the town of Vera Cruz with the fort of St. Juan de Ulloa. This expedition of



GREAT FOUNTAIN IN THE CITY OF MEXICO.

combined troops under a French, Spanish, and English commander was wanting, however, in strength and unity. After effecting but little, the three generals entered into fresh negotiations with Juarez, and in the treaty of La Soledad ended with recognising his presidentship. Soon afterwards, Don Juan Almonte, the son of Morelos, the champion of liberty, who had lived for many years in Paris and enjoyed great confidence among the Conservatives, accompanied by Father Miranda and other chiefs of the Church party, entered the camp, and declared himself to be a person in the confidence of the Emperor Napoleon. His presence soon became a source of uneasiness to the English and Spanish commanders, as the intervention, in consequence, threatened to assume greater proportions. They had not foreseen a war, but only a demonstration. When, therefore, Juarez demanded Almonte's sur-

render, Prim, and the English commander, Wyke, regarded the request as just and equitable; and as the feeling gained ground that the pecuniary relationship was only being used by Napoleon as a pretext for conquering Mexico and "regenerating the Latin race there," the Spanish and English ships soon sailed for home, leaving the empire of Mexico to its fate (April, 1862). The French, however, considered that the honour of the nation and the Emperor demanded that an enterprise, begun with such ostentation, should not be so ingloriously abandoned, and the religious zeal of the Empress Eugénie strengthened her husband in a project by which he might in some degree atone for his co-operation in the violation of the States of the Church. The position of the French, however, soon became a critical one. Almonte, who remained in the camp of the French and caused himself to be declared the head of the Republic, did not number as many adherents as he endeavoured to make his patrons believe; moreover, the French forces were small, and had been further diminished by the ravages of the yellow coast-fever. At last, in



TRAVELLING IN MEXICO.

August, the French laboriously made their way along the steep mountain-paths of the high plains towards Puebla, and with the new year 1863 began the siege of this strongly fortified town, which was defended by General Ortega with 22,000 men. For several months no definite attack was ventured upon; but at last, after the defeat of General Commonfort, in command of the main army, by General Bazaine near San Lorenzo, Ortega found himself no longer able to offer resistance; and on the 10th of June the firing of cannon in Paris announced the latest triumph of the French arms.

On receiving the intelligence of the fall of Puebla, Juarez attempted to hold the capital in subjection by means of terror. An insurrection, however, compelled him to quit the town, and to make San Luis de Potosi the seat of government. To this place he withdrew with his most faithful followers, while the French marched upon the capital. On the same day that the news of the taking of Puebla reached France, Forey, on the part of Almonte, made

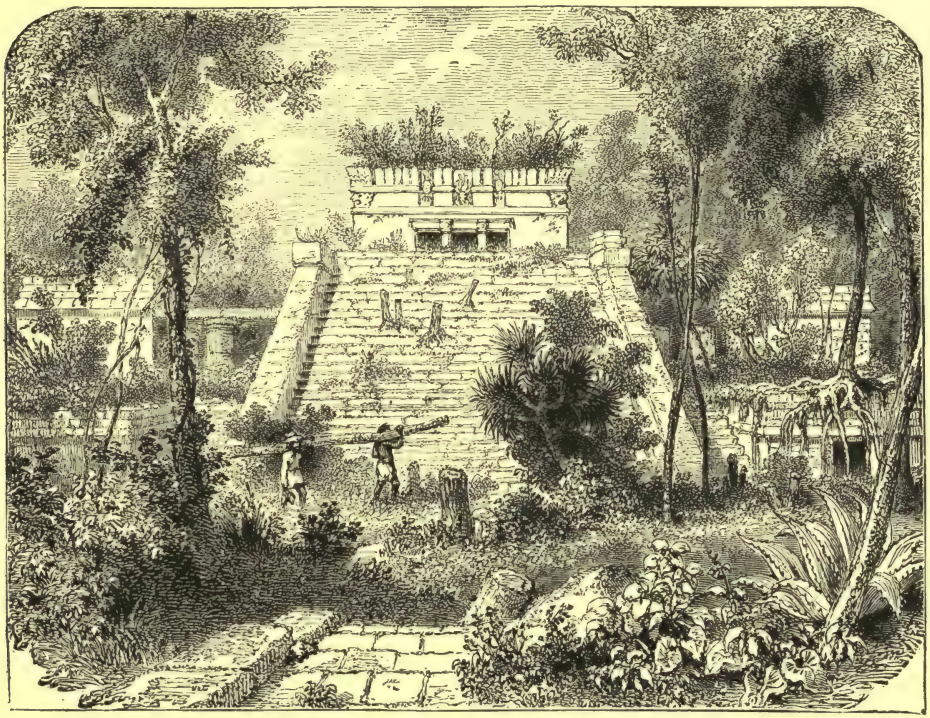
his entry into Mexico, greeted as a victor by the acclamations of the people. The example of the capital was followed in the provinces. Without considerable resistance the French generals occupied the interior of the country. A new form of government was now established, consisting of a Junta; and a Triumvirate was appointed, including Lamonte, Labastida, archbishop of Mexico, and Mariano Salas. The republican form of government was abolished, and a moderate hereditary monarchy was established under a Catholic prince, who was to bear the title of Emperor of Mexico; and the crown was then made over to the Archduke Ferdinand Maximilian of Austria, for himself and his descendants.

The Empire.



THE choice had been made with judgment. Maximilian, a younger brother of the reigning emperor of Austria, could, as a Hapsburg, bring with him old associations and historical legitimate rights into the New World. Moreover, the archduke seemed eminently fitted by his excellent education and political experience for the Imperial dignity. His wife also, Marie Charlotte, daughter of King Leopold of Belgium, was eager to share with her husband every danger and obstacle, and both, moreover, were inspired with admiration for the political sagacity and commanding talents of the Emperor of the French. A ceremonious embassy brought the intelligence to the archduke (Oct. 3rd, 1863). He declared himself ready to accept the crown as soon as the nation "should have voluntarily confirmed the wish of the capital." On the 4th of February a solemn Te Deum commemorated the victory of the Intervention over the Government of Juarez, and at the same time the archduke Maximilian received the news that upwards of two thousand municipalities had declared in his favour, and the Prince of Hapsburg now no longer hesitated to accept the offered "crown of Montezuma." After an interview with Napoleon in Paris, he set out with his wife, Marie Charlotte, on his long voyage, and on reaching Mexico was joyfully proclaimed Emperor Maxmilian I. But it was evident that the monarchical principle would have many obstacles to contend with in the romantic South American State. The United States, which had long cast eager glances at Mexico, and had only been prevented by the civil war in their own country from opposing the European Intervention, soon availed themselves of the difficult position of the young Imperial State by attempting to overthrow the new monarchy, and by asserting the "Monroe doctrine," which declared that it was contrary to the interests of the United States for the monarchs of Europe to introduce their system into any part of America. At the same time the peaceful development of the State was impeded by the Liberals and Republicans, as well as by the priesthood and the whole of the reactionary and clerical party. Opposition from without had also to be contended with. The House of Representatives at Washington had already declared on the 4th of April "that the people of the United States could not reconcile it with their principles to recognise a Monarchical

Government established in America under the auspices of a European power," and it soon became apparent that a conflict between the Union, which regarded President Juarez as the legitimate representative of the republic of Mexico, and the protectorate of France, which upheld the Imperial throne with money and troops of war, was only a question of time. And an outbreak soon occurred. In spite of the efforts of the chivalrous Emperor Maximilian to strengthen his throne and establish peace and order in his kingdom, and, by the promise of an Imperial status and popular representation, to win the confidence of the Liberals, neither the French army of occupation nor his own native troops were in a position to dislodge the Republican troops of Juarez. The pecuniary aid rendered by France was also soon exhausted. This state



ANCIENT MEXICAN TEMPLE.

of affairs appeared to the Government of Washington to afford a favourable opportunity for overthrowing the Mexican monarchy. It therefore demanded that Napoleon should withdraw his troops, and thus render it possible for the Mexican people to decide of their free will what form of government should henceforward prevail (February, 1865), and allowed it to be distinctly understood that the former friendly relations between the Union and France would be endangered "if the French Emperor could not reconcile it with his interests and his honour to abstain from armed intervention in Mexico." From this time Napoleon, who was fully aware of the dislike of the French nation for the Mexican expedition, was only intent on finding a pretext for an honourable withdrawal, and above all was anxious to protect the French capitalists from great losses. The commands received by Bazaine were to the effect

that in Paris it had been decided to abandon the cause of the Emperor Maximilian; and therefore the French general, who had married a rich Mexican, maintained such an attitude that he could withdraw with as little loss as possible to himself and the French army from the unlucky predicament.

MAXIMILIAN'S DEATH.



NATIVE MEXICAN SOLDIERS.

THE results of this policy were soon apparent. Every day the ranks of Maximilian's adherents diminished; and of the thousands who had at first greeted the Hapsburg with acclamation, and upheld his cause, but few remained. Conspiracies also began to be formed against the life of the betrayed and forsaken prince. In vain did the Empress Charlotte herself undertake a journey in the summer of 1866 to Paris and Rome, to obtain from Napoleon material, from the Pope spiritual aid. Deserted by her friends, and deceived in her hopes, she fell into a state of mental distraction. While she passed melancholy days in the friendly fortress of Miramar, tortured by the terrible delusion that she was surrounded by poisoners and murderers, her husband on the other side of the ocean was brought into such straits that he could only with difficulty maintain himself against the increasing power of the Republicans. An abdication, to which Bazaine endeavoured to urge him, would have assured him a safe return to Europe under the protection of the French troops; but the representations of his followers, who declared that his retirement would bring down certain ruin on their heads, and the painful thought of quitting the scene of his exploits like a fugitive, and returning home without fame or honour, made such an impression on the chivalrous mind of the noble-hearted prince, that he rejected the proposition of his protector. In the first months of the following year the French troops embarked at Vera Cruz, and returned to Europe. The power of the archduke now rapidly dwindled away. At the instigation of the inhabitants of the capital, who were apprehensive for their safety, Maximilian at last attempted an expedition to the north of the country, and advanced at the head of his small army against the fortress of Queretaro. His chief general, Marquez, now organized a system of terrorism in the capital in the name of the emperor, which called forth general indignation. It was not of long continuance, for Queretaro was quickly surrounded by Escobedo and other bandit leaders. The Imperial troops offered brave resistance, and Maximilian led forward his troops with spirited valour. He sought to die a soldier's death in honourable combat; this, however, was denied him; he was to fall by treachery, which always surrounded him. Commander Miguel Lopez, one of the few leaders who had hitherto remained faithful to him, betrayed him in the last hour for the reward of Judas. The emperor was taken prisoner by President Juarez, and after the lapse of a few

weeks was tried by court-martial and sentenced to death. On the 19th of June, 1867, Ferdinand Maximilian was led forth from the narrow cell of the Capucin monastery at Queretaro, where he had passed his imprisonment, to the place of execution, and was there shot, with his companions in misfortune, Miramon and Mejia. He met death with steadfastness and courage. On the same day the capital of Mexico fell into the hands of the bandit leader, Porfirio Diaz ; and when, eight days later, Vera Cruz also surrendered, Presi-



MEXICAN GIRL.

dent Juarez was able once more, after four years' banishment, to make his entry into the ancient stronghold. Only after long negotiations could the Austrian Imperial family obtain the surrender of the body of the archduke for burial in his native soil. Even before his remains had been brought home by Admiral Tegethoff, the noble Empress Charlotte, released from the dark cloud of madness, had returned to the land of her birth, where she lived secluded. From the time that she learnt of her husband's tragic fate, her mind had seldom been cheered by bright moments.



MEXICAN INDIANS.

The Republican States of Central and South America.



THE events and changes in Mexico had produced a corresponding impression in all the States of Central and South America, which had once stood under Spanish rule. They all alike shared in the civil and financial confusion, which had there led to the European Intervention. Had the new government succeeded in Mexico, the example would certainly have been imitated in the Southern States, and Napoleon's "greatest idea" would have been no dream. The republics of the Central and Southern States were, however, distracted by internal quarrels and dissensions; torn by savage party-conflicts and passionate racial hatred, they plunged from one revolution into another, and could but little enjoy the fruits of their independence. Instead of creating a national self-government, which had its root in the character of the people, republican institutions had been superficially adopted, and, in place of true liberty, a phantom government had been established. Like the United States in the north, the South American republics divided the governing power between a president and a congress; but under the veil of these institutions the most antagonistic passions and aspirations contended for the mastery. Not only Creoles, native Indians, and half-caste men made war on one another, but Federalists, Centralists, Conservatives, Liberals, aristocrats, etc.



CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA.

CONDITION OF THE CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICAN STATES.—COLUMBIA AND ITS DIVISIONS.—VENEZUELA AND NEW GRANADA.—THE STATE OF ECUADOR.—PERU AND ITS INDEPENDENCE.—NATURE OF THE GOVERNMENT.—ITS PRESIDENTS AND THEIR POWER.—THE CAREER OF SANTA CRUZ.—THE STATE OF CHILI AND ITS GOVERNMENT.—PRESIDENT PRIETO.—PRESIDENT PEREZ.—THE SPANISH-PERUVIAN WAR.—THE STATES OF LA PLATA.—THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC AND BUENOS AYRES.—INSURRECTION.—THE STATE OF URUGUAY.—CIVIL WAR AND FOREIGN INTERVENTION.—FLORES.—HIS ASSASSINATION.—PARAGUAY.—WAR WITH BRAZIL.—LOPEZ.

CENTRAL AMERICA.



FOLLOWING the example of Mexico, the States of Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica had constituted themselves into a republic of the United States of Central America (July, 1821). But the union was not of long duration. Disputes arose between the parties of aristocrats and democrats; the president of Guatemala was put to death, and finally all five States organized their own separate government (1851). For several years a North American adventurer, named William Walker, succeeded in establishing a dictatorial power in Nicaragua, until, on the occasion of an attack by the English on Honduras, he was delivered up to the jurisdiction of this allied State, and was shot at Truxillo (12th September, 1860). A dictatorship was also established in Costa Rica by Carrera of Guatemala, but it was of short duration.

Columbia.—In 1831, Columbia was divided into the three independent free States of Venezuela, New Granada, and Ecuador, with Constitutions similar to the North American States; namely, an elected president and the legislative power lying in the hands of a Congress.

In Venezuela the republic had in the forty years been split up into oligarchies and Federalists, the rivalry between which had brought the State to a condition of anarchy, which afforded the family of Monagas an opportunity for establishing a kind of dictatorial power. After many changes in the presidential office, the Federalist leader, Falcon, obtained the chief power, and made a complete revision of the Constitution. Eighteen independent States form the republican union, or the "United States of Venezuela," with

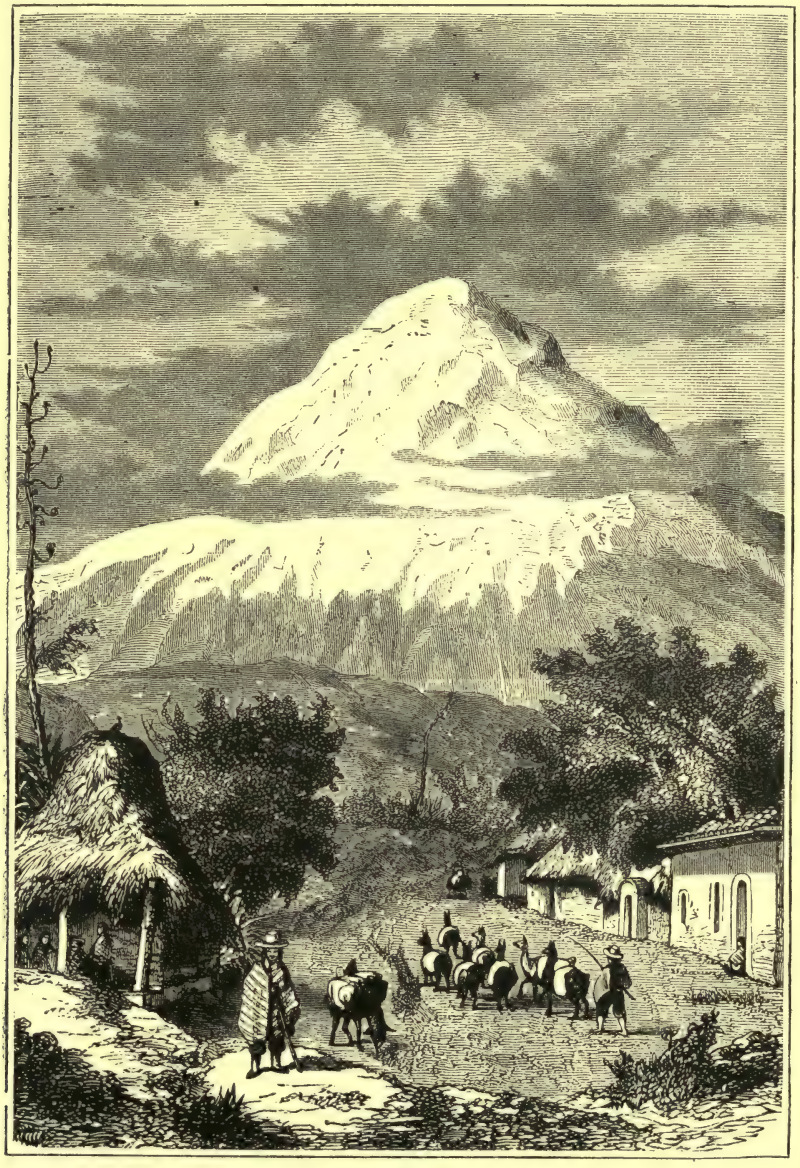


RIO DULCE, GUATEMALA.

a president and congress, at Caracas, as the chief legislative power. As a consequence of this division, fresh revolutions and constitutional struggles arose, which, however, remained limited to smaller circles of action.

Still more stormy was the political existence of New Granada, which since the 20th September, 1861, had assumed the name of the "United States of Columbia." Here Liberal, clerical, and military revolutions occurred in succession, and kept the country in a continual state of excitement. The Bolivanos, or followers of Bolivar, disputed with the patriots, or Liberals, for the presidential dignity, and the struggle and contentions lasted with varying results for many years. At the end of a long civil war, a new Constitution was established, and the republic of New Granada constituted itself, by a treaty of the Union, the "United States of Columbia."

Ecuador.—From the time when the old Spanish district of Quito severed itself from the republic of Columbia, and constituted itself the independent republic of Ecuador, under the presidency of General Juan José de Flores



CHIMBORAZO.

(May, 1830), the historical life of the country alternated between revolution and reaction. Flores himself, the head of the Conservatives, was only able to maintain himself in the presidential dignity by force of arms, and was ultimately compelled to leave the country. The Jesuits, under their president,

Diego Noboa, were now in the ascendant, but their triumph was of short duration. Noboa was deposed by a Junta formed at Guayaquil, and General José Maria Urbina, the leader of the Radicals, became president and dictator (1851). His instalment was followed by the usual disputes and struggles for the supreme power. In May, 1865, Hieronymus Carrion, after a violent party struggle, was elected president of Ecuador.

Peru and Chili.—Peru.—Among all the republics of South and Central America, Peru has alone been unable to obtain from Spain the recognition of its independence. On hearing, therefore, of the European invasion of Mexico, the Peruvians fell into great excitement. Since the Spaniards had surrendered their last position and evacuated the country, the history of Peru for twenty years afforded the most sorrowful picture of civil wars and convulsions, which impeded the development of the country, undermined its prosperity, and



LIMA.

brought no single benefit as compensation. During the presidentship of Ramon Castilla (1845), a more tranquil period prevailed ; but his successor, Don José Rufino Echénique, commenced hostilities against Ecuador and the United States, and after a short period of office was driven from his post by Castilla, who again resumed the office of president. Signs were now not wanting to show that attempts were being made to assert a European supremacy over the South American States, and against such tendencies Castilla directed all his energies. He attempted to unite all the American republics into a league against foreign Powers, and before long became involved in direct conflict with the former mother-country, Spain, which, by way of retaliation for an attack on the Basque colony of Talambo, contrived to obtain possession of various islands which belonged to Peru. The next president of the republic, Pezet, drew down on himself universal odium by an attempt to enter into negotiations with the enemy. He was declared a traitor,

and was obliged to yield up his power. Colonel Prado, the leader of the movement against him, was then declared dictator, and immediately entered into an alliance with Chili, and declared war against Spain (December, 1865). The conflict terminated with satisfactory results for the Peruvian republic; Prado was appointed president, and every Spaniard was banished from Peru and Bolivia.

Bolivia.—Since the constitution of the country of Bolivia as a representative republic, the same social phenomena had shown themselves that had made such havoc and disorder in the other republics. On New Year's Eve of 1829,



CHILIAN WOMAN.

General Blanco, the president, was murdered in an insurrection; but some degree of peace was restored when grand-marshal Santa Cruz accepted the presidency. He, however, was also ultimately deposed and compelled to quit the country. He took ship to Guayaquil, in Ecuador, leaving Bolivia a prey to party conflicts. Only when the Peruvians, availing themselves of the dissensions of the neighbouring State, took possession of the wealthy district of La Paz, did the Bolivians unite together and elect General Ballivian as president. Santa Cruz, however, returned again, and re-asserted his rights, and for several years complete anarchy prevailed. One president after another obtained the supreme power, and was then compelled to bow before the

popular disfavour and retire. In attempting to repress an insurrection aimed at the overthrow of one of the short-lived governments, Colonel Placido Yanez caused a hundred and six persons to be shot in one night (October, 1861). This cruel deed did not, however, deter others from attempting to overthrow the president, José Maria de Acha, who, nevertheless, by his judicious and moderate system of administration, did much to re-establish the tranquillity of the country (1863). Two years later, however, he also succumbed to a rebellion headed by the former president, Belzu, who obtained once more the presidential dignity, when the old internal disputes were again revived, and the fruits of Acha's wisdom and energy were entirely lost.



SCENE IN VALPARAISO.

CHILI.



CHILI, the long strip of coast country between the mountain-chain of Andes and the Pacific Ocean, has rejoiced in a more stable political organization than the other republics of South America, probably because the population is chiefly of European origin; and the people of mixed blood, the original inhabitants, Indians and half-breeds, exercise no influence on historical and political life. Nevertheless, Chili has not remained entirely free from civil discord. From the time when General San Martin with his band of Chilians and auxiliaries defeated the Spaniards in a fierce battle near Chacabuco (1818), till the year 1826, when General Freyre conquered the island of Chiloe, the last stronghold of the Spanish garrisons, Chili also was torn with party struggles. According to the Constitution of 1824, the government power was vested in a president, ministry, and congress; and in Santiago, the seat of the Government, a

supreme court of justice was established. Under President Prieto (1831) many useful institutions were established, and the republic came forth successfully from its defence against the attack of the Bolivian president, Santa Cruz. This result raised the national feeling and the energy of the Chilians; Spain recognised the country as an independent free State, and concluded with it a commercial treaty (1844); and the wise administration of successive presidents increased the wealth and prosperity of the country. We have already seen that Chili was drawn into the Spanish-Peruvian war. President Perez availed himself of the national excitement to place the coast in a state of defence, which was soon followed by a blockade on the part of the Spaniards. But on the intervention of the English and French Governments, the Spanish Cabinet declared itself ready to enter into peaceful negotiations, and after some further hostilities, occasioned by the capture of a Spanish vessel by a Chilian corvette, an armed truce was arranged in 1866.

The States of La Plata, the Argentine Republic, and Buenos Ayres.



As early as the year 1816, a Congress at Tucuman had declared the independence of "the united States of Rio de La Plata." Civil wars, however, commenced under ambitious party leaders, which ended in Paraguay and Uruguay constituting themselves separate republics. Nevertheless, after the secession of these and other territories, a comprehensive kingdom still existed, which included fourteen republican States, and which recognised in the ruler of Buenos Ayres the controller of foreign affairs and the highest executive administration. By degrees Buenos Ayres raised itself above the other republics, and sought to assume the control of the whole State-league. The party who upheld this scheme were called Centralists, but their aims were violently opposed by the party of Federalists, who had a clever and enterprising leader in Don Manuel Ortez de Rosas. The authority of this man soon became so overpowering that he was able to seize the supreme power, and for fifteen years he maintained an absolute dictatorship. He was, however, at last defeated by the opposite party under Don José de Urquiza in the battle of Monte Caseros, and was compelled to fly from the country and seek refuge with his family in England (February, 1852). Urquiza was then installed at the head of the Government. His term of power was of brief duration. During his absence at the Congress at Santa Fé, an insurrection broke out at Buenos Ayes, which resulted in Valentine Alsina being declared governor, and in the town seceding from the Confederation and constituting itself an independent State (1852). Every attempt to reduce the insubordinate town to obedience proved fruitless. The Argentine Republic made Bajada del Parana

in the district Entre Rios, the seat of Government, and Buenos Ayres established its own constitution, in which, however, the return into the Confederation was foreshadowed. Every successive attempt to heal the unfortunate breach was frustrated by the "Unity party" in Buenos Ayres, and the Federalists on the Parana. Only when President Urquiza gained a complete victory over the hostile town-republic near Cepada (October, 1859) was a treaty of peace arranged, in consequence of which Buenos Ayres was again united with the Argentine State-union; but the old quarrels and dissensions were of frequent occurrence. General Mitre was elected president in 1862.



BUENOS AYRES.

Uruguay.—In the twenty years, when the independence of South America had been already extorted from Spain, Brazil and Buenos Ayres strove for the possession of the east side (Banda Oriental) of the La Plata. When the Brazilians, after a long struggle, surrendered the hope of obtaining the "Cisplatine province," they exerted themselves in the development of their own State, that at any rate the rival republic of Buenos Ayres might not increase in power. But a few years after the constitution of the Republic Oriental del Uruguay had been sworn and recognised by the Powers, an internal dis-

pute arose between the president, Ribera, and his successor, Oribe, which quickly divided the whole country into two camps. This civil war continued for several years, until at last the intervention of Brazil, and the mediation of the ambassadors of England, France, and Spain, availed in bringing about an arrangement between the party chiefs, in consequence of which a new president, Pereira, was elected (1856). Fresh disturbances, however, took place; but the insurgents were finally overpowered by the Government, and General Medina and the leaders were shot. The next president, Prudencio Verro, also met with many opponents to his policy; and shortly after his instalment, General Flores, with the help of the Liberals, attempted once more to obtain the presidential dignity. He landed at Colonia in April, 1863, and with



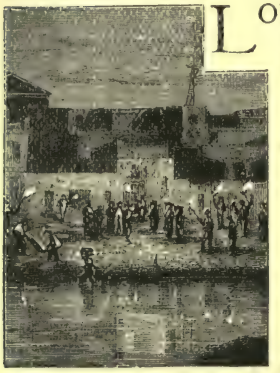
SOLDIERS OF THE BUENOS AYREAN ARMY.

rapidly increasing forces made his way to the capital. There, however, he did not meet with the expected support. When Verro's period of office was at an end, another party leader, Aquirre, was placed at the head of the Government. Flores, however, maintained his hostile position, and the struggle began by his capture of the harbour towns of Salta and Paysandu (August, 1864). In the following year, Montevideo was surrounded both by land and sea by Flores, and was finally surrendered in the treaty of La Union by the new president, Vilalba, in February.

The political affairs of the La Plata States now underwent a speedy change. Uruguay formed an armed alliance with Brazil and the Argentine Republic against Paraguay, whose president, Lopez, would not consent to the peace,

because he saw therein a source of danger to the trading interests of the republic. The three allied Powers then took the field against Paraguay, but retired after their efforts had been rendered fruitless by mutual distrust. During the absence of General Flores, the opposite party had once more gained ground in Montevideo; but just at the moment when his own supporters were contemplating raising him to the presidentship, he was assassinated by four conspirators as he was driving to the Government palace (February, 1867). The popular excitement and indignation at this cruel deed was so great that the senate made over the government to the brother of the murdered man, Don Manuel Flores.

PARAGUAY.

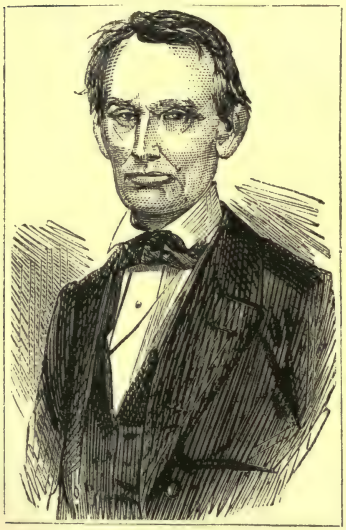


LONG had the ancient Jesuit State between the rivers Parana and Paraguay delayed before it obeyed the summons to shake off the Spanish dominion (June, 1811). The Congress of Buenos Ayres could not deny the neighbouring State the self-government which it claimed for itself, yet it never pardoned the little country for wishing to obtain its freedom. After a few years, the ambitious Dr. Francia was declared dictator, and subsequently this office was conferred upon him for his life. By his system of government, after the fashion of the earlier Jesuit missions, the country was completely cut off from foreign intercourse,—no stranger might enter the country, and no native might leave it. After his death, this system of isolation was gradually given up, a National Congress founded a new State law, and appointed Don Carlos Antonio Lopez, a nephew of the dictator, as president, who also held the office with dictatorial powers until his death. The presidentship of his son, Francisco Solano Lopez (September, 1862), brought the years of peace and internal prosperity to an end. In the war between Paraguay and Brazil, Lopez, who feared that, by the union of the three States, Paraguay's communication with the sea might be cut off, did not hesitate to measure his strength with his powerful neighbours. For several years he maintained the struggle against his threefold enemy; and in spite of the great warlike resources of the Brazilians, both by land and sea, the allied Powers failed to subjugate Paraguay. It is true that during this period the opposition gained ground in Paraguay against the dictatorial power, and Lopez was compelled to have recourse to many repressive measures. He was at last slain in the battle on the bank of the Agurdaban (1870), when his army was destroyed, and the country came practically into the hands of the allies.



THE UNITED STATES, AND THE GREAT CIVIL WAR.

POSITION OF PARTIES IN THE UNITED STATES.—RAPID GROWTH AND INCREASED WEALTH AND IMPORTANCE.—RIVALRY AND JEALOUSY BETWEEN NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN STATES OF THE UNION.—THE QUESTION CONCERNING SLAVERY, AND ITS DIFFICULTIES.—ABOLITIONISTS' AND FREESOILERS' OUTCRY AGAINST SLAVERY.—"UNCLE TOM'S CABIN."—KANSAS-NEBRASKA BILL.—PRESIDENT BUCHANAN.—PRESIDENT LINCOLN.—SECESSION.—BREAKING OUT OF THE CIVIL WAR.—SOUTH CAROLINA, GEORGIA, FLORIDA, ALABAMA, AND MISSISSIPPI SECEDE.—FORT SUMTER.—SPREAD OF THE WAR.—SLIDELL AND MASON.—QUESTION OF QUARREL WITH ENGLAND.—M'CLELLAN.—PROGRESS OF THE WAR.—ABOLITION OF SLAVERY.—GENERAL BURNSIDE.—GENERAL GRANT AND HIS VICTORIES.—RE-ELECTION OF LINCOLN.—HIS ASSASSINATION BY WILKES BOOTH.—CLOSE OF THE WAR.—TRIUMPH OF THE NORTH, AND RE-CONSTRUCTION OF THE UNION.—EFFECTS OF THE RESTORATION OF PEACE IN AMERICA UPON THE PROSPERITY OF EUROPE.



PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

POSITION OF PARTIES.

AT the beginning of the fifty years, when Europe was bleeding from deep wounds, free America was lauded as the land of the future, and many Europeans who saw their ideals dashed to the ground in their old home, as well as many fugitives, exiles, and suspected persons, who were threatened by the arm of the law or by the police, crossed the ocean to begin a new

existence in the New World. Many energetic and industrious Europeans, with vigorous arms and sound understanding, were able to attain to a prosperous and honourable position in the far-off industrial towns, where high wages prevail, and where the acquirement of land is comparatively easy ; but a large number soon recognised that even there earthly life was full of evils and imperfections, and the ills and misfortunes from which they had escaped were amply replaced by other defects and disadvantages. However numerous the hardships they had to bear in the old country, the chilling selfishness which they met with in the New World was certainly a strange experience to them. It cannot be denied, however, that the self-regard of the Americans, combined with the energy and enterprise of young peoples, has been accompanied with mighty results. They have, in rapid succession, acquired Louisiana from France, Florida from Spain ; they have obtained the Western Oregon by the colonization of the river valleys of Columbia, and have taken from the Mexicans Texas, New Mexico, and the gold land of California ; they have brought the



RUINED RANCHE IN CALIFORNIA.

Mississippi country, which for sixty years had been a barren wilderness, by their skill and industry within the civilized life of the Union ; they have created a gigantic league of States, which extends from the Canadian lakes in the north to the Gulf of Mexico, and which is bounded by the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans ; and all this, less by the sword than by peaceful treaties, less by conquest than by the voluntary coalition of the inhabitants themselves. They were also equally concerned to protect their independence and freedom of action. When, in the year 1823, European reaction was contemplating forcing the revolted Spanish provinces back once more into their old fetters, the principle was laid down by the honourable president Monroe, that no interference of European Powers in the affairs of America would be tolerated. Attempts were also made to combine perfect freedom with respect for law and order ; nevertheless, the people's innate love of acquisition and aggrandizement could not always be restricted within the bounds of justice and the recognition of foreign rights, as shown in the reckless, law-defying proceedings of wild bands, who attempted the conquest of Cuba and the coast countries of Central America. Also under the form of a State-union many passions slum-

bered, and diverse interests were at work to produce a rupture of friendly relations. For a long time a deep-seated rivalry had existed between the Northern and Southern States, founded mainly on different views and conceptions of life, and which found its climax in the slave-trade question. For more than half a century the men of the South had been the dominant force in the government of the Union. Possessing large districts with sugar and indigo plantations, and plains of rice and maize, which were cultivated by their slaves, they lived in great prosperity, and filled prominent posts as statesmen; indeed, Virginia, which had once sent the great Washington into the field, was termed the "mother-country of presidents." By degrees, however, the stream of European emigration, which was principally directed towards the Northern



COFFEE PLANTATION.

States, where the acquisition of small properties was easily accomplished, and where labour was respected, caused the South to lose its preponderance and superiority; it sought, therefore, by an extension of territory towards the west to bring the newly organized States within the sphere of its influence, and especially to establish the slave system which was the basis and foundation of its existence. These tendencies first showed themselves when Missouri sought for admittance into the State-union. A considerable party in the Congress demanded that permission should only be given with the stipulation that slavery should continue to be excluded from the State. After a two years' struggle over this question, the men of the South proved victorious; by Clay's Mediation Act, "the Missouri Compromise," the slave system was to be permitted in Missouri, but in future was to be extended to no State north of 36° 30′ latitude. When, in the year 1845, Texas also joined the Union

under similar conditions, the men of the South were able to present a bold front to the opposition of the "Abolitionists," who from motives of religion, humanity, and policy, aimed at the abolition of slavery, and also of the "Free-soilers," who opposed the extension of slavery in any State which might in future enter the Union. Wealth, culture, experience in the business of the State and in the conduct of war, and the harmony founded by community of interests, gave the South power and influence over the divided North. It was also difficult to combat the assertion of the slave-owners that the climate of the South rendered the white man incapable of continuous labour, and that the negro, as experience had proved, would not work unless he were compelled. But before the force of moral convictions, all theories of necessity and practical obstacles were forced to recede. More and more numerous among the re-



HARRIET BEECHER STOWE.

publicans of the North became the party who inscribed on their banner the abolition of slavery throughout the whole of America, and who sought to propagate their principles in the press, in the pulpit, and on the platform. Their headquarters were at Boston, the metropolis of liberty and intelligence. Their number was increased every year by emigrations from Europe, and with increased emigration there was also more complete intellectual intercourse between Europe and North America; while, in addition to this, many young Americans repaired to German universities and brought back home with them fresh knowledge and new philosophical conceptions. These and other causes during the forty and fifty years strengthened the opposition against the slave system; and the controversy both in literature and in the Church created an overpowering effect. Who does not remember the great excitement which, in the year 1852, the romance of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," by Harriet Beecher Stowe, aroused throughout Europe? In newspapers, pamphlets, and pulpit

discourses, slavery was universally attacked, and its existence was pointed out as the stigma of the American Constitution. The more obstinate the attack, however, the more passionately did the men of the South insist upon what they called their rights of property. They met the agitation of the Abolitionists by a terrorism which increased to a savage violence. Since the "Missouri Compromise" had been abolished by the Kansas-Nebraska Bill of the 24th June, 1854, and the principle established that even in the territories the permission or exclusion of slavery should be dependent on the decision of the inhabitants without regard to any geographical line of separation, Kansas and the contiguous portion of Missouri had been the scene of violent struggles and skirmishes between the slave-owners and Freesoilers. When the latter conquered, and came to the decision that Kansas should enter the Union as a free State, the Southerners strained every nerve to frustrate the arrangement. They filled the country with their horrible lawlessness; and though the slave party did not prove victorious, they ultimately brought about the withdrawal of the measure. Their exultation was still further increased when, on the 4th November, 1856, Buchanan was elected president.

The Civil War.



GENERAL ROBERT LEE.

In the Kansas-Nebraska Bill the South celebrated its last triumph, however. In the next election of president the Republicans succeeded in returning Abraham Lincoln (1860). With this apparently unimportant event, a new period commences in the historical life of North America. The Southerners now formed the resolution of seceding from the Union, and establishing a separate Congress at Richmond, as they declared that they could not legitimately be compelled to send their representatives to take part in a Government the whole tendency of which was directed to their injury and ruin. The Republicans, however, opposed the scheme, and declared the Union to be a legally established State body, from which no member could separate itself, and that they would regard any attempt at separation as rebellion, and exert all their powers to oppose it. But the South would not be deterred. On the 20th December, 1860, South Carolina pronounced the fatal word of separation, and Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi followed suit. On the 18th of February, 1861, they constituted themselves into an independent Confederation at Montgomery, drew up a provisional Government, and elected the ex-war minister, Jefferson Davis, as their president. The Government at Washington delayed no longer in taking active steps, and the war was fairly commenced, when Beauregard, the general of the South, took forcible possession of Fort Sumter, near Charlestown (14th April, 1861). Thus the whole American nation, which had hitherto almost exclusively devoted itself to the interests of industry, trade, and agriculture, entered into a civil war, which, in its bloody violence and devastation, was not second even to the most savage



FEDERAL TROOPS IN THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR.

conflict of the ancient world. As the whole trading world, which could ill dispense with the raw products of the South, had great interest in the speedy restoration of peace, both belligerents endeavoured to win over the European naval powers. While the Union sought to convince the Governments of France and England of the justice of their cause, and to represent their opponents as rebels, the South obtained greater sympathy in London and Paris; and though this sympathy did not result in active intervention, yet



BOMBARDMENT BY MORTAR BOATS ON THE MISSISSIPPI.

both Powers recognised the two conflicting parties as belligerents, and declared that it was their custom "not to withhold their recognition of newly established Governments, when the suitable conditions for such a recognition existed." In Washington there was great indignation at this attitude; the proffered mediation was rejected, and a case soon occurred in which the recognition of this neutrality was put to a hazardous proof. The commencement of the land war brought no laurels to the Union troops, therefore all the more zealously did the Washington Government endeavour to avail itself

of the more favourable position of the North in the naval contests. They declared the whole west and south coast in a state of blockade, gave chase to all the enemy's ships, and prevented access to Europeans. As far as the coast of England and the Mediterranean they chased the cruisers of the belligerent States. It now happened that two of the Southern league commissioners, Mason and Slidell, who, in spite of the blockade, had succeeded in reaching Havannah, had thence started to Europe in an English steamer to agitate for their cause in London and Paris. Their intention, however, became known in Washington; a frigate of war under Captain Wilkes remained on the watch in the old fashion for the English passenger ship, which also brought the mail, and compelled it with threats to retreat; the two agents and their companions were then captured and taken to New York. The news of this high-handed proceeding towards men who had appealed to the protection of the British flag aroused tremendous excitement in England. They demanded, with the full acquiescence of the public opinion of the Union, the surrender of the prisoners, and made preparations for war in case this satisfaction should be refused. All Europe regarded with anxiety the issue of this ominous stroke of policy, which seemed calculated to produce a universal conflict. The American Government had discovered, however, that the subjugation of the Southern States was not so easy a matter as they had believed, and were consequently more inclined to yield to the demands of England. By the 30th November, therefore, before even the English Note had reached Washington, Seward, the Secretary of State, had disavowed any responsibility for the proceeding of Captain Wilkes, and ultimately the Government of the Union consented to yield up the prisoners. In the meantime the war by land and sea was carried on with all the fierceness and violence which was to be expected from the passionate character which the conflict had assumed from the first. It does not, however, lie within the scope of this work to describe all the campaigns and military manœuvres which took place in the different frontier States. The victories of M'Clellan in West Virginia, and of the German general Sigel in Missouri over the Southerners, were more than compensated for by the successes of the skilful general Beauregard, and the brave general "Stonewall" Jackson. The year 1861 drew to a close without the issue having been decided; and wherever the foot of the enemy had trodden, there destroyed houses and villages bore witness to the terrible civil conflict. While Lincoln forbade all trading intercourse with the rebel Southern States, and seized their property, Davis prohibited all transport of sugar and rice on the highways, so that the Union might be deprived of these indispensable necessaries of life. In the main issue of the war—the question of slavery—Lincoln took no decisive measure, that he might not cut off every means of reconciliation. It was not till the year 1862, when the war on the frontier had assumed an even more violent aspect, that the Union Government proceeded to further action. In March the Congress declared that the Union supported every State which was willing to abolish slavery for compensation. In June, slavery was forbidden in the territories which had not yet developed into independent States; and when these preparatory steps did not lead to the desired object, a proclamation of the president made known that in all the States which at the beginning of the new year were still in a state of rebellion, slavery should be abolished

End of the War, and Murder of President Lincoln.



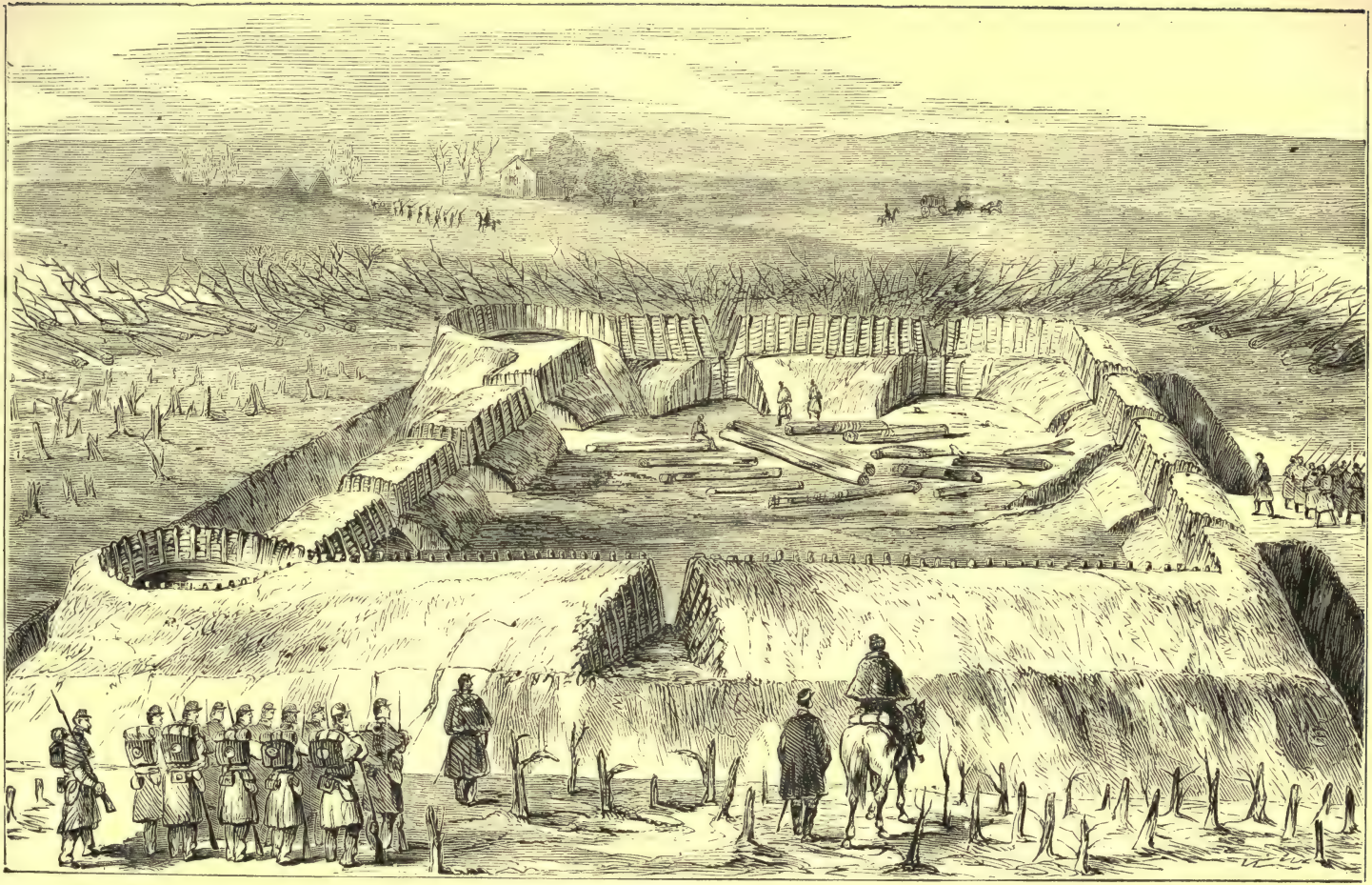
THE progress of the war reached no definite result even in the year 1862. Though during the first months the Union troops obtained with great effort certain advantages, and in April even gained possession of the town of New Orleans, the equilibrium was again restored in the summer and autumn. Towards the end of the year General Burnside was appointed in place of M'Clellan, and he proceeded once more to cross the Rappahannock, but was not able to dislodge the enemy from their strong position. He lost the murderous battle of Fredericksburg (December, 1862), and in a second battle at the same place, General Jackson, a Bible-reader, with whom religious feeling and love of warfare went hand in hand, lost his life. A short time afterwards the Southerners, under General Lee, marched into Pennsylvania, but were compelled to retreat after the three days' battle of Gettysburg (July 1st to 3rd) with the Union general Meade. Nevertheless, the blood-stained country in the west of Virginia long remained the scene of an indecisive struggle, and even distant generations will recall the names of Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Petersburg, and the rivers Rappahannock and Rapidan, with sorrowful emotions; for these places were not only the grave of many brave soldiers, but they were the grave of happiness and prosperity for a long period, and certainly no less for the North than for the South. For though the Union was richer in provisions and inhabitants, the expenses of the war increased the national debt enormously. Trade and commerce were at a standstill, the burden of taxation became more and more oppressive, metal money disappeared from daily use, and paper money, without other security than the credit of the Government, sank to a third of its nominal value. Still greater were the difficulties with which the Southern States had to contend. The finances fell into confusion, the necessaries of life rose enormously in price, and the whole white male population had to take arms; it was even a question of admitting the negro into the ranks. The pressure still further increased when the town of Vicksburg, after a long siege, was compelled to submit to General Grant, so that the Union was master over the whole course of the Mississippi, and the Confederates were entirely cut off from the West. Notwithstanding this, the Southerners still fought on with lion courage, and the year 1863 also passed away without a prospect of peace. The Congress announced its firm determination to continue the war, and the following year also found no alteration in the state of affairs. As the time for the next presidential election approached, the public attention became more diverted from the war. The party of peace turned their glance towards M'Clellan; all the more energetically did the Republicans and Abolitionists agitate for the re-election of Lincoln, who was ultimately returned on the 8th November, 1864, to the head

of the Government; and thus was the watchword given for the continuation of the war. On the 31st of January the House of Representatives at Washington determined, by a majority of two-thirds of the assembly, on the complete abolition of slavery. About the same time the conference which the president had held with the representatives of the Southern States came to



BURNSIDE'S LANDING.

an end, because the North would not consent to a recognition of the Confederation. The strength of the Southern league was now getting exhausted; its leaders were at variance with each other, and the last emergency of levying recruits for military service from among the negroes no longer availed to avert the decisive blow. After a council of war between President Lincoln and the generals of the Northern army, a joint attack on the double fortress of Richmond-Petersburg was undertaken by Grant and Sheridan. The town surrendered on the 3rd of April, and on the following day President Lincoln took possession of the capital at Richmond, and shortly afterwards Lee concluded a capitulation with Grant, in consequence of which the Virginian army retreated from the field. A few weeks later General Johnston with the Southern army of Confederates surrendered to General Sherman; and when, in the following month, the last division of the army threw down their arms, the



CONFEDERATE FORTIFICATIONS TO THE NORTH OF MANASSAS JUNCTION, NEAR BULL RUN.

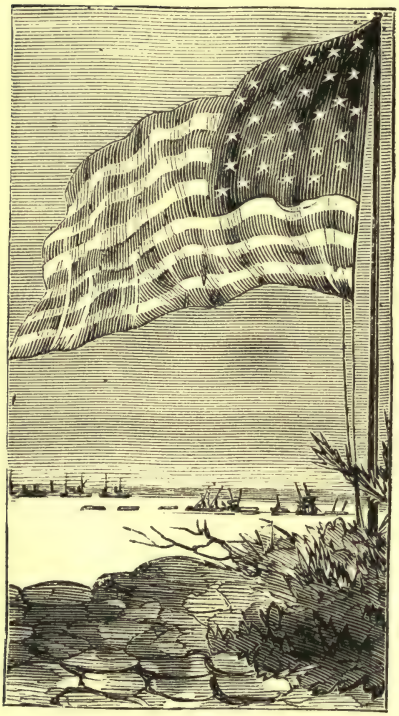
South might well be regarded as conquered, and the civil war as at an end. But even the last triumphs were to be saddened by a bloody crime, and the author of the slave emancipation was not destined to survive the triumphant fulfilment of his work. On Good Friday (14th April, 1865), the honourable and benevolent president, Abraham Lincoln, who by his own energy and intelligence had risen from the ranks of the people to his exalted official position, was shot in his box at the theatre, where he was surrounded by his family, by Wilkes Booth. With the theatrical exclamation, "*Sic semper tyrannis!*" the murderer vanished from the scene; he was, however, captured, and paid the penalty of his crime with his life. "The South is avenged," the assassin was heard exultantly to exclaim. A similar attempt by another conspirator on Seward, the Secretary of State, was happily frustrated. If the originators of the crime had hoped that the terrible event would plunge the Union into confusion, they were mistaken. After swearing the Constitution, the vice-president, Andrew Johnson, took the post of the murdered man, and continued the work that had been commenced. After Jefferson Davis, who had attempted to escape to England, had been thrown into prison, the new president was able to announce the end of the war.



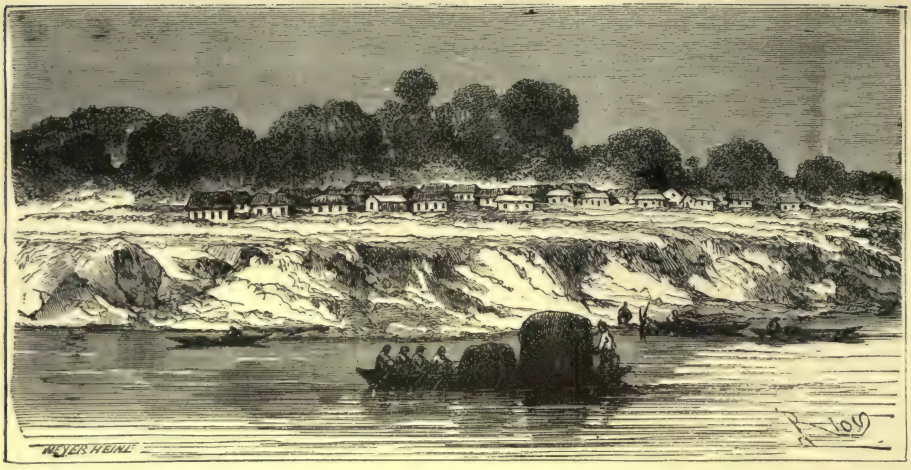
"STONEWALL" JACKSON.

Now began the arduous work of re-organizing the Union on the basis of the liberty and equality of all, in which the Americans showed as much fairness and humanity as circumspection and patriotism. In spite of the fierce party hatred and animosity with which the war had been carried on, the victory was stained by no deed of revenge. The revolting ill-treatment and murder of Northern prisoners of war by the inhuman Wirz at Andersonville was only visited on the inspirer of the deed, who was sentenced to be hung, by a court-martial decree. The large armies were disbanded without confusion, the number of war-ships was diminished by sale; and by the self-sacrifice of the American people, who willingly took upon themselves the heaviest burden of the taxation, a large part of the enormous war debt was soon paid off. Also the difficulties which cropped up with regard to the reconstruction of the Union, and the relationship of the black population to the State, which gave rise to much excited feeling and speaking, were overcome by the clear-headedness and patriotism of the sensible men of Washington. Johnson was succeeded in his office by General Grant, who had so distinguished himself in the war by his bravery and ability (3rd November, 1868).

Effects in Europe of the Close of the War.



IN Europe also the effects of the termination of the war were soon perceptible in the revival of trade and industry; and the successful completion of the submarine telegraph by means of the Atlantic cable, was joyfully welcomed by the people of both hemispheres as a new bond of union. Less agreeably were the Governments of France and England affected by the intelligence that the South was conquered, and that the power of the Union was revived once more. By their sympathy for the cotton-planters and slave-owners of the South, they had earned for themselves small gratitude at Washington, and the demeanour of the Congress Government soon showed that the equivocal attitude of the two great Powers had not been forgotten; while in England the American ambassador demanded compensation for the losses which the Union had incurred through the privateers of the Confederates, and especially through the *Alabama*, which had been built in, or had escaped from, an English harbour. The subject of the *Alabama* claims soon became the burning question of the hour, and at one time even a war seemed imminent between the two naval States; in America the connivance of the English Government with the Confederation was repaid by a similar indulgence towards the machinations of the Fenians, who desired to raise Ireland to an independent republic. At last the Governments of both countries agreed to place the decision as to the amount of indemnity, as well as to the principles of international law to be followed in the future, in the hands of a tribunal of arbitration which was to hold its sittings at Geneva, and by the decree of this court the lengthy dispute at last disappeared from the political horizon. At the same time the Union made efforts to improve its possessions, and to unite them by means of railroads (1867). Thus it acquired by treaty or purchase the territory of Alaska from Russia, and the islands of St. Thomas and St. Jean from Denmark, and united the far-off West with the leading country of the East by the Pacific railway, an enterprise which struck terror into the Indian tribes and led them to take up arms.



PRUSSIA AND AUSTRIA.

EVENTS FROM 1865 TO 1870.—AFFAIRS OF SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.—MARCH OF THE PRUSSIANS ON ALTONA.—PRINCE BISMARCK'S POLICY.—HIS MINISTRY AND THAT OF BELCREDI.—THE GASTEIN CONVENTION.—MISUNDERSTANDINGS.—PREPARATIONS FOR WAR.—POPULAR TERRORISM.—ATTEMPT AT MEDIATION BETWEEN SAXONY AND PRUSSIA.—MANTEUFFEL TAKES POSSESSION OF HOLSTEIN.—GENERAL DISSATISFACTION.

SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.



THROUGH the separation of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein-Lauenburg from Denmark, only half of the work had been accomplished. The opinion prevailed that Prince Bismarck's policy was calculated to impede the development of Prussia's marine possessions; and that with regard to Schleswig-Holstein, the burden of debt under which the duchies groaned rendered the establishment of an independent Schleswig-Holstein State extremely difficult, and it appeared that the enfeebled country could not dispense with the protection of a strong ally for its assured existence. The demand of the Berlin Cabinet for the withdrawal of the troops of execution not being complied with, the Prussians invested the territory, through Holstein, and marched with a con-

siderable force on Altona, the seat of the allied commission. The Governments of Hanover and Saxony were then requested to recall their troops, without waiting for the decision of the Diet. Hanover prepared to do so; Saxony, on the other hand, declared it would only obey a decree of the Diet, and commenced warlike preparations. The two great Powers, however, suggested that the occupation should come to an end, and effected the recall of the troops and commissions of the league from Holstein and Lauenburg. The Saxon military retired, the duchies remained occupied by only Prussian and Austrian troops, and the civil commissioners of the German great Powers undertook the chief administration. The German Diet was as good as excluded from the settlement of the Schleswig-Holstein question which had so often been discussed before its forum. By the end of the year the relationship between the two great German Powers was already inverted; Prussia had conquered the first position. The Berlin Cabinet refused the suggestion of Austria, to make over the sovereign rights that had been acquired by the Peace of Vienna to Prince Frederick of Augustenburg, stipulating for the "security of its State interests, the general interests of Germany," etc.; and in spite of the outcries of the opposition press against the minister's "policy of violence," Prince Bismarck held steadfastly to his policy, and at length achieved the fame of gaining "moral conquests" in the rest of Germany. In the new year (January, 1865), the announcement of the combined action of the two joint possessors was followed by the establishment of a common Schleswig-Holstein government.



ALTONA.

Diplomacy and the Duchies.

FROM that time forward the question of the constitution of the duchies with regard to the interests of the kingdom occupied more and more attention at Berlin. The scheme of bringing the duchies into closer connection with Prussia gained in popular favour; it was declared that only a strong, military state could in future protect the conquered country from hostile attacks, and a former declaration at the London Conference in favour of the Augustenburg claim was explained as a diplomatic mistake. Even in Schleswig-Holstein there was an agitation for union with Prussia, though at the same time the majority of the population expressed their desire that Frederick of Augustenburg, on the ground of his hereditary right and by the will of the people, should be appointed duke of Schleswig-Holstein, and it should remain for him, in conformity with the legal constitution of the State, to come to an understanding with Prussia regarding a "closer union." But there was no intention at Berlin in allowing the conditions of a closer connection to be dependent on the good-will of the ruler, and the decision of the States. In a despatch of the 22nd February, therefore, the conditions were laid before the Vienna Cabinet, under which the Prussian Government was inclined to negotiate with Austria regarding the cession of the duchies to their own sovereign. The Imperial Ministry, however, declared that a duke of Schleswig-Holstein who was installed with the restrictions demanded by Prussia could not possibly enter the circle of sovereigns of the German league as an equal member. No attempt at mediation or arrangement was of any avail, however; the Prussian Government would not be moved from its policy; and as it could not hope to carry the "February demands" in their entirety, it continued to hold the possessions as a material guarantee for its claims of indemnity, and endeavoured to prolong the provisional condition until favourable circumstances should permit of a closer union. The negotiations in Austria with regard to summoning a Schleswig-Holstein State assembly led to no result.

The Ministries of Bismarck and Belcredi.



IF the attitude of Prussia to some extent bore resemblance to the example of Sardinia, Prince Bismarck at any rate did not model his internal policy on that of Count Cavour. He troubled himself neither with the approval nor dissatisfaction of the representatives of the people, nor yet with the favour of the press or the sympathies of the nation. In spite of the opposition of the House of Deputies, he did not allow himself to be turned from his plans. By the removal of the Prussian fleet-station from Danzig to Kiel, he practically showed "that Prussia was resolved to remain in possession of this harbour"; and so strong did the minister feel himself, in spite of the opposition, that he at the same time behaved towards Austria in such a manner as was calculated either to reduce her to further compliance or compel her to take up arms. When the Council of Vienna now directed a damaging criticism against the Schmerling ministry, and exposed the evils of the ad-



MOUNTAIN SCENE IN SWITZERLAND.

ministration in as relentless a manner as the House of Deputies at Berlin, a plan was discussed in court circles for getting rid of the troublesome Diet, and attempting to enter into closer connection with Hungary. A visit of the

Emperor to Pesth made with great solemnity and ostentation, and the elevation of Count Mailath as Hungarian court-chancellor in the place of Count Zichy, was the introduction to a change of ministry and a new system. Schmerling and his colleagues received their dismissal, and the Bohemian count Belcredi, a statesman of high aristocratic views, was commissioned a few weeks later to form a ministry. Preliminary steps were now taken to bring back Transylvania and Croatia, which since the revolution had been separated from the Hungarian empire, once more into their old relationship, in spite of the dislike which these Sclavonian-German provinces had for the restoration of the Magyar supremacy; and by an Imperial manifesto of the 20th September the greater and lesser council, and in fact the whole Constitution of February, was placed in abeyance, until there had been communication with the representatives of the other kingdoms and countries. The return to the old absolutism, with separate Land Diets in the different Crown countries, and the unweakened influence of the Concordat, "which lay like a poisoned vapour on the development of Austria," was a severe blow to the German element and the Liberal party; the country Diets therefore did not neglect, in addresses to the Emperor, to beg for the restoration of the February Constitution, but without result. Since that time the "Autonomists" in all the non-German Crown lands have formed a separate party as opposed to the "Centralists." The subsequent scheme of summoning an "extraordinary Diet of the German and Sclavonian countries," which might then confer with the Hungarian Diet as to a joint Constitution, met with violent opposition, as it threatened to establish a permanent dualism. But even with Hungary the reconciliation was not effected as quickly as had been hoped at Vienna. The "reconstruction by the revolution" was, it is true, abandoned by the Emperor himself in his speech from the throne at the opening of the Hungarian Diet (December, 1865), and the formal validity of the laws from the year 1848 was recognised; but while the Government demanded that they should be submitted before the introduction of a revision, the Hungarians demanded that the recognition and carrying out of the revision should have the precedence.

The Gastein Convention.

THESE differences between the Government and the people of Austria, combined with the increasing financial embarrassment of the Imperial State, strengthened the Berlin Cabinet in its plan for securing the hereditary duchies to the kingdom of Prussia for all time. In vain had the hope been expressed by the Diet Assembly that the Governments of Austria and Prussia would be pleased to make over to the hereditary prince of Augustenburg the duchy of Holstein. Prussian State policy contrived that the negotiations at Frankfort should remain without result, the Prussians themselves became more and more enamoured of the idea of an "annexation," and the question of right was less considered than national interest. It was comparatively easy to obtain the support of the Vienna Cabinet, and in the Convention of Gastein (14th August, 1865) Austria promised not to be drawn into an inconvenient war. It was also agreed that the duchies should continue in the possession of the two conquerors, that the government and administration of Schleswig was to be given to Prussia, and that of Holstein to Austria, while the duchy of Lauenburg was to be made over by the Emperor to the King of Prussia for the sum of two and a half millions of Danish thalers.

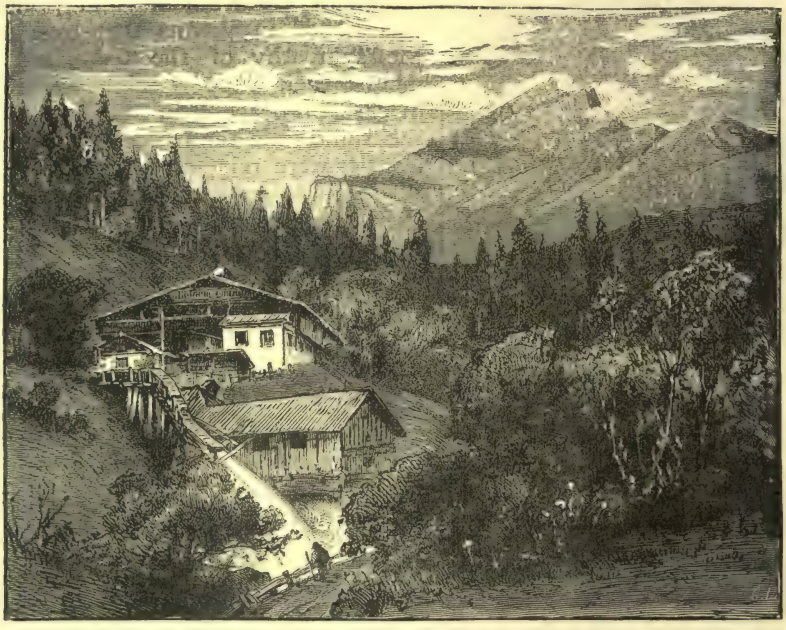
New Associations and Plan for a Reform of the Union.



FAR from imitating the harsh demeanour of Prussia in Schleswig, the Imperial Government endeavoured by a conciliatory attitude to win the popular favour and to establish an amicable footing with the indignant Governments and princes. It was hoped in Vienna that by obtaining the sympathy of the German Governments, their support might be relied on in case of peace being endangered. At the same time the troops on the Silesian frontier were reinforced, the fortifications of Cracow were armed, and other warlike preparations commenced. In Berlin these proceedings were met by similarly hostile measures. A despatch of Prince Bismarck's to the German Governments on the 24th March was replied to either evasively, or by a reference to the Constitution of the Union. Prussia might have foreseen such a result, and therefore relied all the more resolutely on her own power. Without regarding the demonstrations throughout Germany in favour of peace, the Government issued commands for placing the armies in most of the threatened provinces in a state of preparation for war, and for protecting the fortresses.

At the same time the amicable negotiations with Italy were so far advanced, that on the 8th April a treaty was signed, in which the Government of Victor Emmanuel engaged to support the King of Prussia in the accomplishment of his intended reform in the German Constitution, with armed force, while Prussia promised to cede Venetia. It was also agreed that neither could conclude peace without the other. At the same time the Italian Ministry assured the Prussian Government of its joyful support, if Prussia, placing herself at the head of the German National party, would summon that Parliament which for so many years had been the desired object of the nation, and would secure for Germany, as had been the case in Italy, the advance of Liberal institutions by the exclusion of Austria. It was a curious spectacle, that at the same time that Bismarck was suggesting at the Diet the summoning of a Parliament from the direct representatives of the people, and universal suffrage by a reform of the Constitution, the same means—namely, a transformation of the German Union Constitution by a freely elected Parliament—was proposed and recommended as the only certain measure of salvation (April, 1866). The popular party, however, distrusted the proffered gift on account of the giver. The whole nation was at the time intent on the question of war or peace. While Saxony and Würtemberg proved their slight confidence in a peaceful arrangement by secret preparations for war, and Bavaria once more attempted mediation, efforts were universally made to obtain an expression of popular opinion. For some time appearances seemed to point to a probable arrangement of the difficulty; Austria

disavowed any warlike motive for her military preparations, and Prussia gave the assurance that nothing was farther from her intentions than a commencement of hostilities. The Imperial Cabinet declared itself ready to agree to a mutual disbandment of troops, and the 25th April was already fixed for the commencement of the truce. But before this date had arrived, it was found at Vienna that Venetia had been threatened by Victor Emmanuel, and it was therefore decided that the disarmament should only be carried out as regarded Prussia, and that the Italian army should be reinforced and ordered to march.



SCENE IN THE VALLEY OF THE INN.

A deprecatory despatch from the Vienna Cabinet did not avail to allay the apprehensions which this decision aroused in Prussia, particularly as it was proposed at the same time "that Prussia and Austria should confer their acquired rights over the duchies north of the Elbe on that candidate whom the German Union should deem to have the preponderating claim to the succession of Holstein." In case of a refusal to this suggestion, no other course lay open to the Imperial Government than to place the whole matter before the German Union, and at the same time summon the Holstein States, to learn the opinion of the country. Bismarck replied to the Vienna despatch that if Austria did not place her whole armed force in all parts of the monarchy upon a peace footing, there could be no question of a disarmament on the part of Prussia, and declared in connection with the proposal that the decision as to the duchies should be placed in the hands of the Union, that Prussia was not disposed to make the acquired possession dependent on any decision but her own free decision, though always willing to confer with the Imperial State as to any arrangements for abandoning its share.



NATIONAL COSTUMES OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE;—HUNGARY.

War Preparations of the Great Powers.



MEANWHILE the war preparations were increasing. In Prussia four divisions, and then the whole army, were put in a state of readiness; and simultaneously in Italy, all the recruits were summoned under arms. With singular self-sacrifice the people's representatives at Florence gave their consent to all the measures of the Government. The minister La Marmora yielded up the presidentship of the ministry to the liberal and patriotic Ricasoli, in order to take the post of commander-in-chief. Even the threatening symptoms which showed themselves in France,—where Thiers spoke in the Legislative Chamber in favour of the maintenance of the treaties, and declared that Prussia must be prevented from upsetting the peace of Europe; the Emperor, on the other hand, declaring at an agricultural festival at Auxerre that he abominated the treaties of 1815, which it was now desired to make the only basis of foreign policy,—did not avail to restore the drawn sword to its sheath.

Austria refused to disband her forces despatched to Italy, and made over the chief command in Venetia to Archduke Albrecht. In the empire and in most of the German allied States, such an excited feeling prevailed against Prussia, that the Governments, even had they wished, could scarcely have longer resisted the popular pressure. To such a height rose the hostility against Prussia, and the hatred of the minister Bismarck, that an attempt was made on the prince's life in the open street by a young man, stepson of a well-known exile and democrat, Blind. The name of Bismarck had become the object of the wildest popular hatred. A previous journey to Paris and Biarritz afforded his enemies a pretext for accusing him of an understanding with Napoleon. The dissolution of the Prussian Chamber, pronounced by the king at the suggestion of the whole ministry, contributed still more to the embittered state of feeling. The troops were everywhere called to arms, and tardy Governments were hurried along by popular terrorism. It was in vain that a numerous assembly of German deputies, who met together at Whitsuntide in Frankfort, endeavoured to suggest an intermediate course, so that the impending civil war should not divide the whole of Germany into two great camps, but should be circumscribed to the narrowest limits, as it was hoped that the Central States could abstain from the conflict of the Great Powers. Soon also Baden, where the Liberal Government had long been the object of the most violent hostilities on the part of an Ultramontane "Casino" party, found itself compelled to form an alliance with the neighbouring States. Once more there shone forth a gleam of hope that the peace so ardently prayed for by the German nation might be preserved. The neutral Great Powers —France, England, and Russia—issued an invitation to a Congress, where the three burning questions of the hour—the duchies on the Elbe, the Italian



VIEW OF ANTWERP FROM THE SCHELD.

dispute, and the reform of the Union—were to be decided in a diplomatic manner (May 24th). At the same time a joint proposal was made by nine Governments of the Central States for a simultaneous disarmament of all the members on an appointed day; and the grand-duke of Baden, a prince of warm patriotism, and allied by close family ties with the Prussian king, set out for Pillnitz, near Dresden, to effect a mediation between Saxony and Prussia. But the slender hope soon vanished. King John, who had shortly before declared, at the opening of the Diet, that the least powerful member would be dishonoured who failed to meet unjust threats with a manly courage, insisted on the alliance with Austria. The projected Paris Peace Conference, at which Prussia and Italy were prepared to consider matters, was thwarted by the declaration of the Vienna Cabinet that it would only take part in it on condition "that no combination of the same should commence any negotiation calculated to procure any one of the invited States extension of territory or an increase of power." As under this proviso the meeting of the Congress was useless, Napoleon declared that it would be impossible to hold it.

The Position of Parties.



AT the beginning of June, therefore, everything was blank speculation. An external impulse alone was needed to cause the threatening storm to burst forth. This was given by the Austrian Government, which, in spite of the express declaration of Prussia that it would not acknowledge the competence of the Union in this national matter, brought up the Schleswig-Holstein question for decision before the Diet at Frankfort, and at the same time issued a command for summoning the States of Holstein on the 11th June, at Itzehoe, "to learn the voice of the country as to its future fate." Prussia protested against this proceeding, which involved a breach of the Gastein Treaty, and hastened to complete its mobilization and assemblage of troops, until its combined forces amounted to over 400,000 men. The Austrian troops were of equal strength, but their equipment was less complete. The mismanagement and bad army administration which had wrought such disastrous consequences in the Italian campaign, were again apparent, for the real condition of the army in no way corresponded with the accounts signed by the military authorities. As according to the Prussian theory, the Gastein Convention was annulled, and thus the former condition of affairs was restored in the duchies, Von Manteuffel received the command to conduct his troops from Schleswig to Holstein, and to commit to the Austrian governor the investment of Schleswig. Gablenz, however, did not await the arrival of the Prussians, but advanced under protest with his troops towards Altona, accompanied by the duke and the Holstein Government. As Gablenz had already refused his co-operation in the restoration of an Austro-Prussian Government, Manteuffel also now took possession of Holstein, prevented the meeting of the States summoned at Itzehoe, and appointed Baron von Scheel-Plessen as "president-in-chief" of the administration. Gablenz, however, refused to sacrifice his troops in an unequal conflict, and withdrew to join the northern army in Bohemia. The investment of Holstein, Austria regarded as a breach of the treaty, and an act of self-help which was a violation of article 19 of the Vienna treaty, and demanded a speedy mobilization of the whole allied army with the exception of the Prussian army corps. At an extraordinary sitting on the 14th June, the Prussian ambassador protested against the unconstitutional perversion of the treaty, the acceptation of which his Government would regard as a declaration of war. The proposal for "preparation for war" was considered and carried by a simple majority. Prussia thereupon declared that the relationship of the Union was broken, and the bond dissolved. Its subsequent proposal of a new constitutional scheme included a parliament elected by the people, the exclusion of Austria, and the establishment of a northern and southern Union army—the former under the command of Prussia, the latter under Bavaria. That dualism was the principal cause of the weakness of Germany, and that only by the exclusion of Austria from the German Union could a vigorous State organization be created, had already been recognised by the Imperial Parliament of 1848.

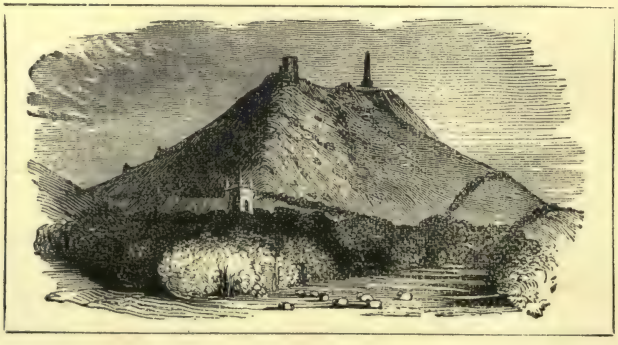


QUEEN LOUISA OF PRUSSIA.
MOTHER OF THE EMPEROR WILLIAM I. OF GERMANY.

New Combinations.



WITH the ominous decision of the 14th June, the Diet, which Austria had recalled into existence in the year 1850 for the humiliation of Prussia and the defiance of the Liberals, came to an end. Old parties and combinations were now dissolved, and the whole nation divided into two great camps. Around her "great German" banner, under the leadership of Austria, flocked in the first rank all the clericals and reactionaries who had ever venerated the House of Hapsburg as the strong fortress of their aspirations,—the servile officials of the small States,—the majority of the democrats who took umbrage at the Prussian arrogance,—a large number of financiers who, in the debasement of the Austrian paper money, dreaded a pecuniary loss,—the "Particularists" or "Federalists," who preferred the old separation to a united "Great Prussia,"—and the men of stern sense of justice, to whom the maxim *Fiat justitia* was the most sacred of dogmas, and who regarded the action of Prussia towards Schleswig-Holstein and its "hereditary duke," and her contempt for constitutional law at home, as a total disregard of sacred rights and treaties. Such were the diverse elements which, in combination with Austria and the dynasties of most of the central and smaller States, formed the great phalanx, to which was added the mass of the people, partly incited by instinctive antipathies, partly urged along by remembrances of the year 1849, and partly persuaded by the fear of an increase in the State burdens, higher taxation, and universal military service. It could not be maintained, however, that the Prussian people entered upon the conflict with enthusiasm; general protests were raised against a policy of "blood and iron," agitations for a change of ministry became more unremitting, and the stagnation of business and industries brought impoverishment to many houses and families; but the die was cast, and a retreat could now bring only shame and dishonour.

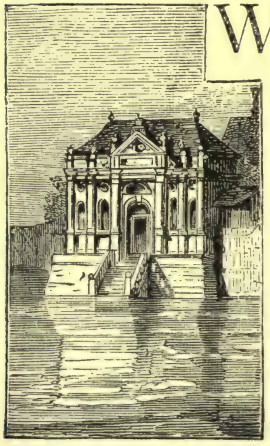




THE WAR BETWEEN PRUSSIA AND AUSTRIA IN 1866.

WARLIKE PREPARATIONS. — THE COMMENCEMENT OF HOSTILITIES. — OPERATIONS AGAINST THE KINGDOM OF HANOVER. — SAXONY IN THE POWER OF PRUSSIA. — THE WAR IN BOHEMIA — GREAT DEFEAT OF THE AUSTRIANS AT KÖNIGGRÄTZ. — PROGRESS OF THE STRUGGLE ON THE PO AND THE MAINE. — BATTLE OF DERMBACH. — RETREAT OF THE BAVARIANS. — ATTEMPT OF AUSTRIA TO GAIN FRANCE AS AN ALLY. — VICTORIOUS ADVANCE OF THE PRUSSIANS. — PRESBURG ATTACKED BY PRINCE FRIEDRICH KARL. — ARMED TRUCE OF NIKOLSBURG. — PEACE OF PRAGUE. — ISSUE OF THE WAR. — NEW ARRANGEMENTS. — PRUSSIA IN A COMMANDING POSITION TOWARDS WÜRTEMBERG, SAXONY, AND HESSE-DARMSTADT.

MARCH OF THE HOSTILE ARMIES.



WHEN it was decided at Frankfort that four army corps should immediately be placed in readiness, preparations were already so far advanced that the conflict could be commenced at once. The army of the Elbe, under Herwarth von Bittenfeld, was posted on the Elbe ready to invade Saxony; the left wing was formed by the second Silesian army, under the Crown Prince.

While the first Silesian army, under the command of Prince Friedrich Karl, formed the centre between Hoyerswerda and Görlitz, the western army, under Vogel von Falckenstein, covered Westphalia and the Rhine-land, and was able to operate against Hanover, Hesse, and Nassau. The Austrian army was under the command of the brave and experienced Benedek, who had distinguished himself in the battle of Solferino.

By the decision of the Union of the 14th June, no neutral position was any longer possible for the German States ; they must ally themselves with either one or the other Great Power. Unless Prussia, in her unfavourable geographical position, was to be impeded in the free use of her armed forces, it was now necessary that she should seek to withhold those States which intersected her eastern and western provinces from an alliance with the enemy. At the same time, however, it was necessary to pay regard to the Emperor of the French, who, in a letter to the minister Drouyn de Lhuys, of the 11th June, recommended a watchful neutrality, and had expressed his wishes in the following words : " For the secondary States of the German Union, a closer alliance, a vigorous organization, a more important rôle ; for Prussia, greater influence and power in the north ; for Austria, the maintenance of its important position in Germany ; for Italy, that Austria should cede Venetia for a fair compensation."

It was therefore decided at Berlin to restore the lines of demarcation between North and South Germany, which had formerly been united in the Peace of Basle, and to combine all the States north of the Maine into a war-league under Prussia's guidance, or compel them to adopt a neutral attitude. It was therefore demanded of the three princes of Hanover, Saxony, and Hesse, whether they were now willing to join the new Union on the basis of the reform scheme of the 10th June ; and when the three Governments rejected the request, war was at once declared (15th June). Saxony's appeal for aid was responded to at Frankfort, and Austria and Bavaria were petitioned to render assistance to all the threatened countries. The promised aid was construed by Prussia into a declaration of war ; and shortly afterwards the Government of Florence also declared war against Austria, because the Imperial State would not recognise the newly constructed kingdom, and continued to oppress the noblest province, as well as to endanger the existence of the whole of Italy.

Commencement of Hostilities.



FTER these formalities there followed the entry of the Prussians into Electoral Hesse, Hanover, and Saxony. In Hesse, General Beyer was, however, unsuccessful in cutting off the retreat of the garrison to Hanau, which, after combining with the division under the command of Prince Alexander of Hesse, proceeded to the investment of Mayence. On the other hand, the Elector, who still refused the proffered conditions, was carried off by General Röder as a state prisoner to Stettin (June, 1866). At the same time General von Manteuffel crossed the Elbe, forced the garrison of Stade to surrender, and then marched on the capital of Hanover, which King George had quitted with the Crown Prince, to place himself at the head of the assembled troops at Göttingen. When Manteuffel reached Hanover, the town was already invested, and great stores of ammunition fell into the hands of the Prussians. King George, who had at last decided to ally himself with the Imperial State, attempted with his 19,000 men to break through to the south, but the line from Eisenach to Erfurt was invested by Prussian and Saxon troops, who impeded the progress of the Hanoverians, and ultimately a truce of hostilities

was arranged, which, under the mediation of the Duke of Gotha, was taken advantage of to arrange a capitulation. The negotiations, however, failed; and a renewal of hostilities was soon followed by the bloody battle of Langen-

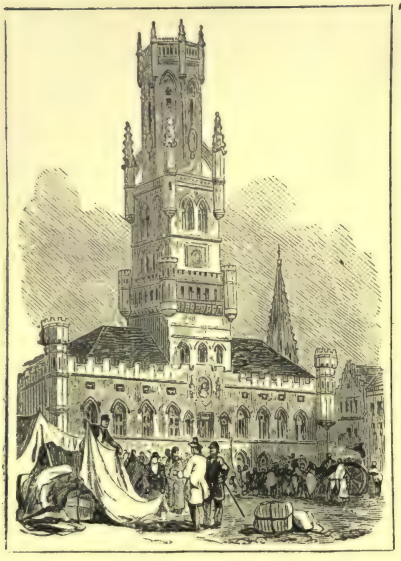


THE CROWN PRINCE OF PRUSSIA.

salza (June 27th), which proved a useless feat of arms, barren of result to either side. Nevertheless, the Hanoverians, who were deserted by the Bavarian army, were soon convinced that resistance was useless; on the 29th of June a capitulation was arranged, which left the Prussians masters of the country.

During the progress of these events, the kingdom of Saxony had also fallen into the hands of the Prussians. Directly after the declaration of war, the Saxon army, after having destroyed the Riesa railway by fire, had evacuated the kingdom, to combine with the Austrians. General Herwarth von Bittenfeld immediately marched into the country, and took possession of Dresden, while Prince Friedrich Karl led forward some regiments towards Zittau and Bautzen, and invested Leipzig. Prussian commissioners now took the administration in hand, and endeavoured by a lenient bearing to establish a good understanding with the inhabitants, as Prussia was not at war with the people, but only with the hostile Government of the country.

The War in Bohemia.



THE possession of Saxony afforded the Prussians the advantage of obtaining a concentrical advance of the three armies through passes of the frontier, thus facilitating a speedy union of all the divisions of the army in Bohemia. By the rapid movements of the enemy, Benedek found himself deterred from his aggressive design of directing a telling blow at the heart of the Prussian State. Instead of the anticipated liberation of Saxony by the Austrian commander, the three Prussian armies suddenly appeared through the mountain passes north-east of Bohemia. King William himself now decided to take the chief command, and, in spite of his advanced years, repaired to the scene of battle, accompanied by Bismarck, the President of the Ministry, General von Roon, and the chief of the general staff, Von Moltke. As soon as the attack on Bohemia had been decided on, the Prussians marched in on three sides. On the 28th June, Münchengrätz was evacuated after several violent struggles by the Austrians, and the Prussians took possession of the almost deserted town. Shortly afterwards the town of Gitschin was also captured, after a horrible scene of bloodshed and massacre (June 30th).

About the same time while the Prussians were engaged on the Iser and near Münchengrätz, the second army also set out to attempt to join the other division. When, however, General Steinmetz penetrated the narrow defile of Nachod, he was attacked at the opening by General Ramming, one of the Austrian generals; but the danger was overcome, and the march continued, though with considerable loss to both sides.

Simultaneously, another division of the Silesian army, under General von Bonin, marched from Liebau to Trautenau, which, after a fierce battle with Gablenz's corps, was captured by the Prussians. This was followed by other successes which led up to the conquest of the bravely defended town of Königinhof, where the retreating enemy suffered heavy losses, and forfeited their banners and ammunition.

Thus, by the end of June, when King William arrived at Reichenberg, and assumed the chief command in person, the entire Prussian army was already concentrated round Horsitz and Jaromierz; and just at the time when the royal prince was taking up his head-quarters at Gitschin, the Viennese learnt by telegram that Benedek had found himself compelled to rally his army round Königgrätz; and in this district was shortly to be expected the decisive struggle. On the 3rd July, 1866, was fought the memorable battle of Königgrätz, or Sadowa, in which, in spite of many losses, the Prussians, led by King William and the Crown Prince, gained a signal victory. Eleven banners, 174 cannon, and 18,000 prisoners fell into the hands of the victors.

With justice could the royal commander declare in his address to the army: "The day of Königgrätz has cost heavy sacrifices, but it is a day of honour for the whole army, and is regarded by the fatherland with pride and admiration."

Progress of the Struggle on the Po and the Maine.



THE lamentable intelligence from the battle-field at Königgrätz spread all the greater consternation in Vienna as the public had shortly before been rejoiced and excited by receiving favourable reports from the seat of war in Italy. Simultaneously with the Prussians the Italians had marched into the field, inspired with a proud courage and national enthusiasm. Victor Emmanuel himself was with the main army, which, under the command of the general and minister of war, La Marmora, crossed the Mincio, and was to march to the Etsch (Adige), and there, in conjunction with the division under Cialdini, was to undertake the conquest of the country. The rumour was credited that the Austrians would only defend the territory on the further side of the Etsch. At the same time Garibaldi, with his volunteers, was to march into the Tyrol. In number of troops the Italians were far superior to the Austrians, and they burned with the desire of measuring their strength with their hated adversaries. But the blood-stained battle-plain of Custozza, where once Radetzky had led the Austrian eagle to victory, was to bring fresh laurels to the Imperial State. On a hot June day (24th June, 1866), the Austrian troops, under the Archduke Albrecht, gained a brilliant victory in the battle of Custozza, in spite of the bravery with which the Italians flung themselves into the contest under the eye of their king. At the news of the disaster to the royal army, Cialdini relinquished his intended passage across the Po, and retired to his former position at Bologna.

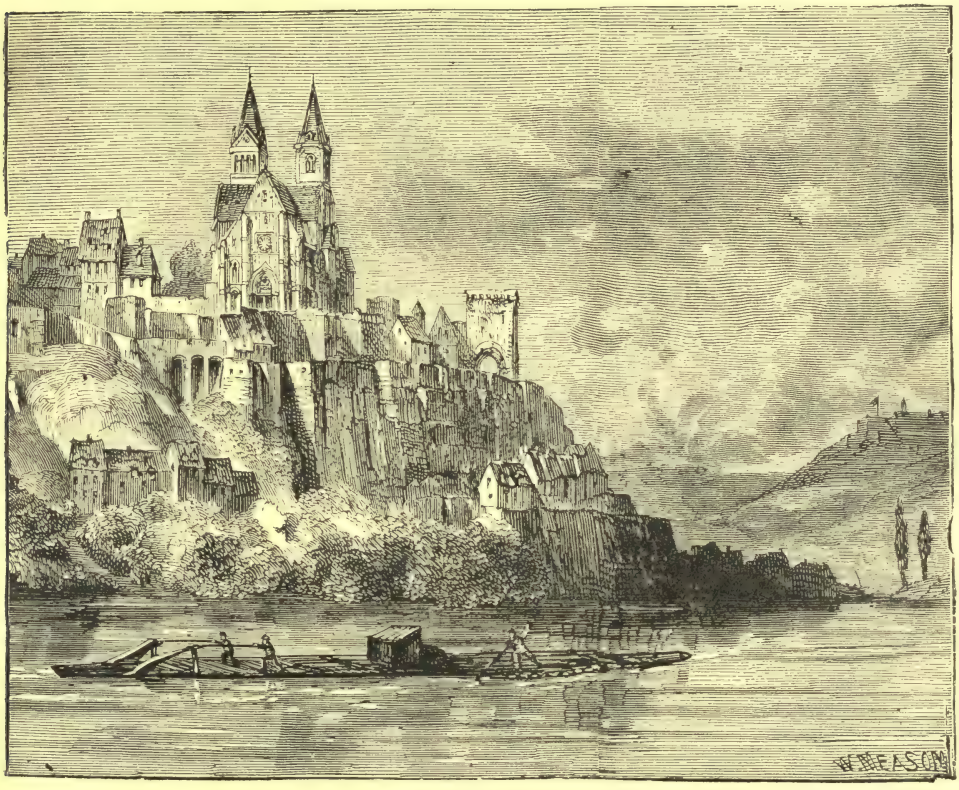
As Prussia's chief forces were expended in the eastern battle-field, the con-



IN THE ALPS.

flict in the west could not be so swiftly proceeded with. After the battle of Langensalza and the capitulation of the Hanoverians, Vogel von Falckenstein was in a position to combine the different divisions into a "main army," and to advance against the Union army, which was encamped in the neighbourhood of the Maine. By the first of July the Union army was sufficiently prepared to engage in action. The Bavarians were in the north of Franconia,

while the eighth division was established north of Frankfort in the Wetterau. Falckenstein therefore conceived the plan of separating the two armies and preventing any combined action. He despatched a division eastwards against the Bavarians, and at Dermbach a bloody battle took place (4th July, 1866), which was fought with great bravery on both sides, but without any definite result. Prince Karl, however, who led the Bavarians, relinquished the idea of maintaining his position, and turned southwards towards the Franconian Saale, followed by the Prussian army, which marched in the direction of



SCENE ON THE MAINE.

Hanau, so that after a parallel march of several days, both reached the Maine territory. To relieve himself of the troublesome pursuit, General Falckenstein decided at last on a fresh attack. After an arduous march through the Rhön mountains, the Prussian troops at last reached the Bavarians in the Saale valley, and compelled them, after some sharp skirmishes in and near Kissingen and Hammelburg, to retreat to Schweinfurt.

Falckenstein now turned against the eighth army division. When the intelligence reached the head-quarters at Bornheim of the advance of the Prussian main army, there was great apprehension at Frankfort; Prince Alexander therefore quickly despatched a Hessian and Austrian division, under General Neipperg, to Aschaffenburg to keep back the advancing Prussians, and at the same time invest the passes near Gelnhausen. But the victorious battle near Laufach (13th of June), and the conquest of Aschaffen-

burg after a hot struggle, plunged the commander-in-chief in such consternation that he surrendered his positions at Frankfort and the Union town, and withdrew with his whole army southwards towards the Odenwald. With him also escaped the members of the Diet from the scene of their former activity, and they made their head-quarters temporarily at Augsburg. The Duke of Nassau and the Grand Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt also quitted their States. The way to Frankfort now stood open to the Prussians. It was a matter of general lamentation that they did not now bear themselves with the moderation and humanity for which they were lauded in other lands. Not only was a war contribution of six million florins imposed on the town of Frankfort, but further extortionate demands were made, with a threat of violent measures if they were resisted. After his entry, Falckenstein took possession of the town and land in the name of the king, as well as of the whole of Upper Hesse. Thus ended the famous fourteen days' campaign of the illustrious general. Soon afterwards he was recalled and appointed governor of Bohemia, and Manteuffel replaced him in the post of commander-in-chief of the main army (19th July, 1866).

From Königgrätz to Nikolsburg.



THE battle of Königgrätz had completely broken Austria's powers of resistance, had destroyed the high expectations which had been raised by Benedek's well-thought-out plan of campaign, and had entirely shaken the authority of this once highly lauded commander. There were no fresh forces to oppose to the victorious Prussian army; the way to Vienna, to the heart of the Imperial State, stood open; the attempt to obtain an armed truce of a few weeks was rejected. At last the Emperor Francis Joseph conceived a plan, which, by the sudden transformation which it wrought in affairs, revived memories of the Peace of Villafranca. He decided to cede Venetia to Napoleon, hoping by this means to secure the alliance of France, sever the Prussian-Italian combination, and obtain the southern army for active service in Bohemia. But the political scheme had not the expected result. In the short announcement of the important affair in the Paris *Moniteur*, the people learnt that the French emperor only regarded the cession of Venetia as an invitation to mediate a peace between the belligerents. To fulfil this honourable mission of a peacemaker, Napoleon applied to the kings of Prussia and Italy to enter into an armed truce. King William did not reject France's conciliatory offices, but declared that he would only enter into a treaty with Austria on certain conditions, and before the conclusion of certain preliminaries, could not desist from his military action, or from the maintenance of the advantages that had been gained. Victor Emmanuel, however, appealed to the treaty of alliance concluded with Prussia, on the

strength of which neither of the two parties could conclude a one-sided truce or treaty. Thus the intention of Austria of purchasing with Venetia an alliance with France, was frustrated by the fidelity of Victor Emmanuel to his alliances, and by the moderation of Napoleon.

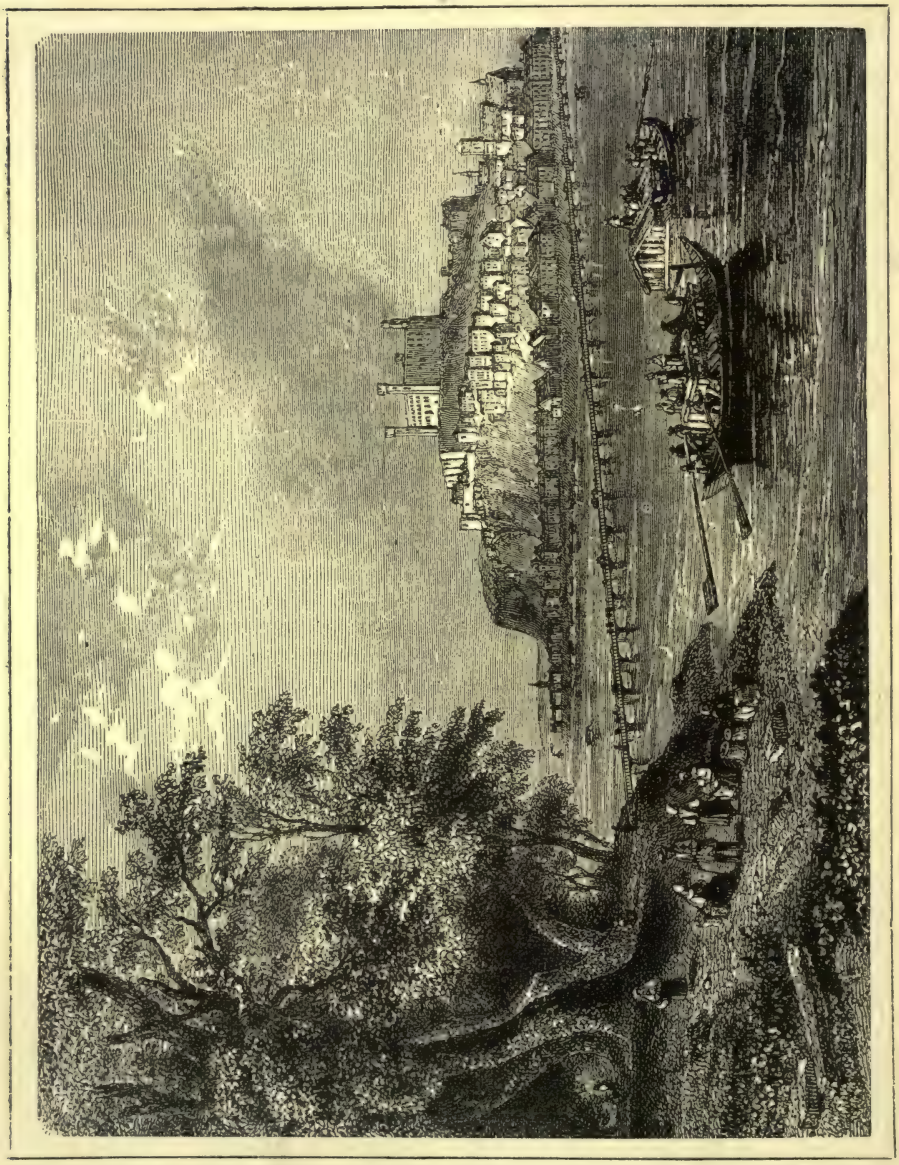


KING WILLIAM I. OF PRUSSIA.

The war operations were then continued; yet regard for France demanded that some negotiations should be carried on at the same time in the Prussian head-quarters and at Vienna with the ambassadors of the Emperor, with regard to the conditions under which a peace might be established.

In Austria there was great lamentation over the national misfortune which had fallen upon the empire through the disaster in Bohemia. When it was found that Prussia, after a few days' cessation, had recommenced hostilities, that the division which had followed the main army out of Saxony had taken the capital, Prague, without the stroke of a sword, and that Gablenz, with a division of the army, had taken up his position on the lines of fortification from Florisdorf to the Danube, to protect the capital from a sudden surprise,

terror and dismay seized all classes. In court circles there was at first an idea of a general arming of the people. An Imperial manifesto "to my people" demanded perseverance in the struggle to the death, and declared that a treaty of peace would never be consented to, through which the essential conditions



PRESBURG.

of the influential position of the empire would be shaken. But there was soon a shrinking from the risk of unfettering the popular energies. Certain events in Bohemia—where the officials, on the return of the Prussians, had deserted their posts, and thus brought the Government into the greatest

confusion, when the lawless population, in their passionate hatred of the Prussians, gave themselves up to scenes of malignant cruelty—might well render the scheme of an armed popular resistance hazardous. It was deemed sufficient, therefore, to recall the generals whom the national voice declared to be the authors of the misfortune. The command of the whole army was then made over to the Archduke Albrecht, after he had conducted a division of the southern army to Vienna, and had united it with the army in the north.

To the Peace of Prague

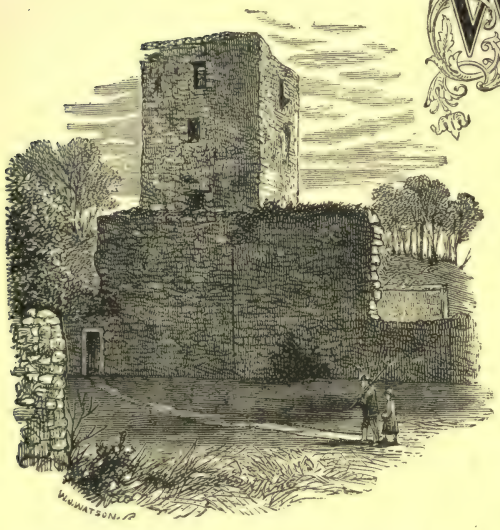


WHILE the archduke was thus engaged in bringing the troops from Italy to Vienna, the Prussian army was attacked during its retreat towards the Danube line. The army of the Crown Prince contented itself with detaining Benedek and his troops at Olmütz, while the Elbe army and the army under Prince Friedrich Karl marched by the shortest way to the duchy. In vain did the Emperor seek once more for a truce. The negotiations fell through on account of the Austrian stipulations that the cessation of hostilities should extend also to the allied States, and that the action of the southern army should not be hindered. The Prussians soon afterwards took up such positions that communication between Vienna and Olmütz was threatened. Archduke Albrecht therefore issued a command to Field-marshal Benedek to proceed to Vienna, but the way was cut off, and Benedek, with only half of his corps, was compelled to withdraw to Presburg, after sustaining considerable losses from the attacks of the Prussian cavalry near Tübitschau and Prerau (15th July). Florisdorf and Presburg were the only strong positions which the Austrians now possessed on the north bank of the Danube. The latter was, however, so successfully attacked by the army corps of Friedrich Karl near Neudorf and Blumenau, that the important town, the key between Vienna and Hungary, would most certainly have fallen into the hands of the Prussians, had they not been stopped in their victorious course by the intelligence that an armed truce had been concluded at Nikolsburg. It was principally owing to the active mediation of the Emperor Napoleon that the conditions of peace demanded by Prussia—the exclusion of Austria from the German State league, surrender of her influence in the duchies of the Elbe, and a promise that Venetia, which had been ceded to Napoleon, should be given up by him to the kingdom of Italy—were accepted by Francis Joseph.

On the 23rd August, 1866, the Peace of Prague was signed, which left the Imperial State in full possession of its former territory, with the exception of its Italian possessions, in return for which the Imperial Government promised to pay twenty million thalers for war expenses, to recognise the league which Prussia was about to establish north of the line of the Maine, and to yield to King William the rights acquired in the Vienna Peace over the duchies of the Elbe. On the other hand, Prussia engaged to allow Saxony to retain its

present extent of territory, and to induce King Victor Emmanuel to accept the conditions of peace, as soon as, by the declaration of the Emperor Napoleon, the Venetian kingdom should be placed at the disposal of Italy.

Issue of the War, and New Arrangements.

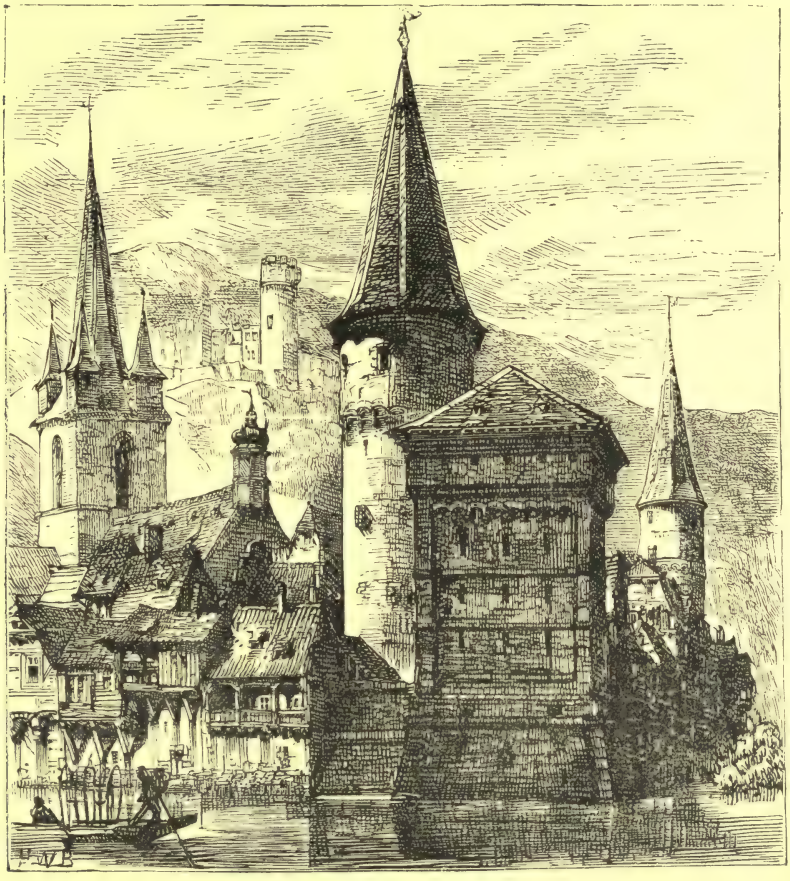


WHEN the truce of Nikolsburg was concluded, the eighth army corps had set out from Dieburg, the head-quarters of Prince Alexander, through the Odenwald to the Tauber, and had there taken up a position where it might communicate with the Bavarian army near Würzburg.

It had been hoped that the truce would be extended to the united states of Austria ; but by the movements of Manteuffel, who had held the chief command since Falckenstein's recall, it could soon be perceived that the Imperial Government only negotiated for Austria. Under the present conditions the continuation of the conflict was a hazardous game. Nevertheless, the exasperation and warlike ardour among the soldiers was so strong, and was shown so unmistakably, that a "baptism of blood" seemed necessary.

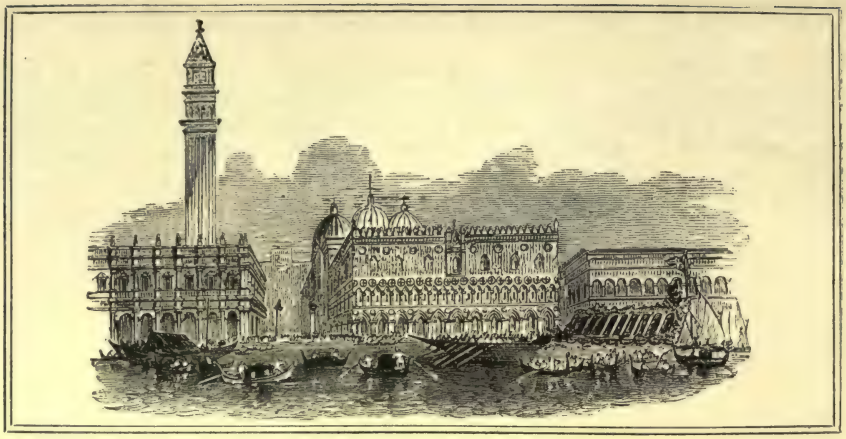
The war was continued in the Maine and Tauber district when the struggle between Austria and Prussia in Bohemia and Moravia was already at rest, and the renown which the main army had gained under Falckenstein was to be augmented by fresh triumphs against the Union troops ; yet in spite of the bravery of the Würtembergers and the Bavarians in several successive conflicts, the result of all the engagements was the retreat of the entire army beyond the Maine, and the capture of the town of Würzburg by the Prussians (28th July). In Würzburg a truce was at last concluded between Manteuffel and Prince Karl, which was used for negotiations of peace. Baden, Würtemberg, and Bavaria ultimately entered into a treaty with Prussia at Berlin, in which they consented to the conditions of the Peace of Nikolsburg agreed upon between Prussia and Austria, and recognised both the establishment of the North German league and the changes of territory which Prussia had proposed. As war indemnity, Würtemberg had to pay eight, Baden six, and Bavaria thirty millions of florins. An offensive and defensive alliance for common action in case of a foreign war remained at first a State secret. Würtemberg came off the most favourably. Prussia had borne it neither sharp animosity nor imputed to it the investment of the Hohenzollern principalities by the Stuttgart Government. The longest delayed was the peace with Hesse-Darmstadt and with Saxony, both of which countries had been deserted by their princes and occupied by the Prussians.

Only with reluctance did the Grand-Duke consent to conditions of peace, by which he was compelled to yield Hesse-Homburg with Meisenheim, that the province of Upper Hesse might be added to the North German league, and the hitherto "Union" fortress of Mayence be exclusively garrisoned by Prussian troops. Still longer had the kingdom of Saxony to endure the burden of the Prussian occupation, as King John could not be persuaded to



GEMUNDEN.

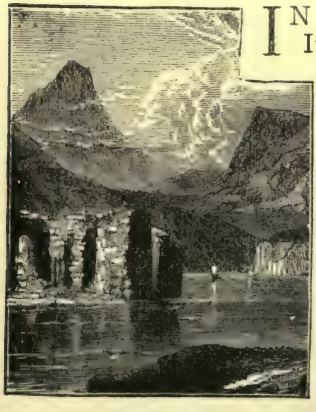
surrender a part of his sovereignty. On the 21st October, however, a peace was finally arranged between Prussia and Saxony. The king consented to a Prussian garrison in Dresden and at the Königstein, paid a war indemnity, and consented to join the North German league. With this conclusion of peace, all the hindrances which stood in the way of the constitution of the North German league were overcome, while the Duke of Saxe-Meiningen, who would not consent to recognise the new conditions, had, by the voluntary surrender of the government to his son George, rendered an arrangement possible.



ITALY AND VENETIA; AND PRUSSIA'S SUPREMACY IN 1867.

COURSE OF THE WAR IN ITALY.—CIALDINI IN VENETIA.—GARIBALDI AND MEDICI.—NAVAL DEFEAT OF THE ITALIANS AT LISSA.—CESSION OF VENETIA BY AUSTRIA.—ENTRY OF VICTOR EMMANUEL INTO VENICE.—GARIBALDI'S ATTACK ON THE POPE'S TERRITORY IN 1867 REPULSED.—THE KING AND THE NATION IN PRUSSIA.—PROPOSAL FOR A GENERAL ARMY UNDER THE DIRECTION AND CONTROL OF PRUSSIA.—HANOVER, HESSE, NASSAU, AND FRANKFORT ANNEXED TO THE PRUSSIAN KINGDOM.—HOLSTEIN AND SCHLESWIG.—NEW PRUSSIAN CONSTITUTION.—TRIUMPHANT POSITION OF PRUSSIA IN 1867.—FURTHER AIMS AND ASPIRATIONS OF THE GREAT NORTH GERMAN POWER.

VENETIA UNITED WITH THE KINGDOM OF ITALY.



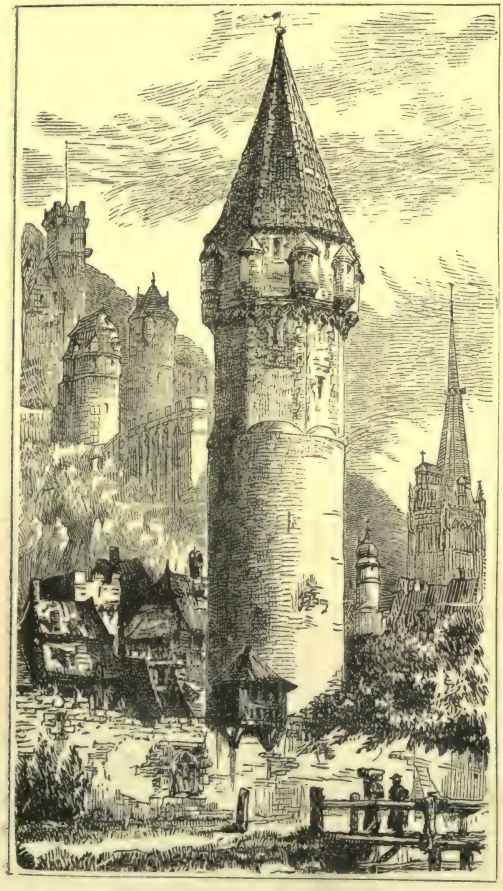
IN the meantime the war was taking its course in Italy. The cession of Venetia to the Emperor of the French did not even afford the Austrians the advantage of withdrawing their forces safely from a country which no longer belonged to them. For Napoleon regarded the cession as imperfect, so long as Francis Joseph had not carried out the counter condition of the treaty, and therefore did not check the war operations of the Italians. Thus was presented the curious spectacle of the Austrians quitting the country as no longer belonging to them, while the Italians obstinately held to the project of conquering by armed force the country which must of itself fall to their share. Such being the conditions, the campaign was attended with little danger. Under the command of Cialdini the main army of Italians crossed the Po, and by the middle of July stood in the heart of Venetia; and when the

strong fortress on the Po was conquered by General Nunziante, and the garrison was compelled to retreat to Mantua, the whole country between the city of the lakes and the Quadrilateral was in the hands of the Italians. It was soon evident, however, that Venetia alone would not satisfy the victors, but that their aim was to unite the whole Italian-speaking country with the kingdom. In vain did the French Emperor, through his cousin Prince Napoleon, Victor Emmanuel's son-in-law, admonish the king to moderation. The popular voice urged on the Government to further demands, and prevented any participation in the truce of Nikolsburg. Nevertheless, the results of Garibaldi's efforts corresponded but little with the expectations which the glorious name of the General had excited. The national hero, who had once advanced in a triumphal procession from Palermo to Naples, and had conquered the kingdom in a lightning flash, restricted himself to the petty warfare in the west of the Gardase; and in spite of all the efforts and the enthusiasm of his troops, was only able to penetrate a few miles into the mountainous valley of Judicaria.

More successful were the tactics of Medici, who from Bassano crossed the mountain, and after a victorious battle with the Austrians near Levico, approached the town of Trieste. He, however, sustained a fresh defeat in the sea-battle of Lissa on the 20th of July. On the urgent inducement of the Minister of the Admiralty, and spurred on by the impatience of the people, Admiral Persano sailed with the Italian fleet out of the harbour of Ancona, with the intention of conquering the island of Lissa, which the Austrians had strongly fortified with strand batteries and forts, and of making it the starting-point of future enterprises. But his intended landing was frustrated by the bravery of the Austrian coast-artillery. For two days he sought by a violent bombardment to reduce the enemy's cannon to silence; but just as he was on the point of disembarking his troops, the Austrian fleet, under the skilful Vice-admiral Tegethoff, came to the rescue. After a four hours' violent battle, Persano found himself compelled to retreat to Ancona.

Like Benedek in Austria, Persano also awakened the displeasure of the people, and was subsequently placed on his trial. Thus the Italian war had begun and ended with a defeat. Nevertheless, fate had still some good things in store. A few days after the battle of Lissa, a truce was declared, in which Victor Emmanuel gave his assent to the conditions arranged between Prussia and France; and as Napoleon had declared that he only accepted the cession of Venetia with the view of giving up the country to Italy, there was a prospect of the whole Apennine peninsula being united within its natural boundaries. But instead of having learnt modesty and moderation from the disasters they had experienced, the Italians raised claims to the South Tyrol and Friuli, because these districts had been in their possession at the time of the truce. When, however, Austria showed a serious intention of defending the frontier with armed force, Victor Emmanuel at last consented to the conditions that had been drawn up, and the truce was finally agreed to on the 12th August, 1866. Soon afterwards Victor Emmanuel made his triumphal entry into Venice, and with the solemn act of homage in the superb St. Mark's Place of the marvellously decorated water-town of palaces, the second part of the Italian work of unification came to an end. In the last month of this eventful year, the French garrison, in pursuance of the September treaty of 1864, quitted the city of Rome, which they had held for seventeen years, leaving it to the Pope to protect his temporal kingdom with his own troops. The beautiful peninsula, as King Victor Emmanuel was able triumphantly to declare at the opening of the Italian Parliament, was now for the first time for centuries

freed from foreign troops. The Government of Florence contented itself at first with these successes, and sought, although in vain, to induce the Papal Government to enter into a peaceful relationship on the basis of the existing conditions. But the national party, with Garibaldi at the head, still aimed at the possession of the Church State. Rome, with its Capitol, was to be the metropolis of united Italy. To accomplish this enterprise, the National Liberal party, under Garibaldi's guidance, ventured in the late autumn of 1867 on a fresh invasion of the possessions of the Pope. But the attempt failed. A French auxiliary army, under General de Failly, armed with the new Chassepot guns, combined with the Papal troops under the German General Kanzler, and defeated the badly equipped Nationalists at Mentana (3rd Nov., 1867). The invaders were partly slain, partly scattered, or were taken prisoners; and Garibaldi himself, after a short imprisonment in the fort of Varignano, on the island of Palmaria, was brought back to his asylum at Caprera. The rash enterprise, however, resulted in the Church State being again placed under the guardianship of a French garrison in the harbour of Civita for several years, until the period should arrive when the Eternal City should also become part of the kingdom of Italy.



WATCH-TOWER AT WERTHEIM.

The King and the Nation in Prussia.

In the north of the Alps the memorable war also terminated with a triumphant festival, on the occasion of the solemn entry of the Prussian army into Berlin on the 20th and 21st of September. But this festival was not regarded by the whole nation, as in Italy, with unmixed joy and enthusiasm. Although in Prussia itself the trophies of victory and the thought of the glorious future of the fatherland brought oblivion of the heavy losses and sacrifices which had been involved in the bitter conflict, there were, notwithstanding, many who lamented what had taken place, and regarded the vanished past as a lost paradise. Soon after the conclusion of the Nikolsburg truce, King William hastened to the capital to open the newly elected Diet. After having given thanks to God "for having helped Prussia under great though still successful sacrifices, not only in averting hostile attacks from the frontiers, but in adding new laurels to the traditional fame of the defenders of the fatherland,

and in paving the way for the national development of Germany," and after eulogising the brave warriors who had died a soldier's death, he said that "the Government and the representatives of the people had now to unite in harmonious co-operation, that the seed which had been sown in blood should be brought to perfection," and expressed his confidence "that recent events would contribute to bring about the indispensable understanding, in so far that the Indemnity, which would be requested, would be freely granted, and thus the conflict would be the more definitely closed for all time, inasmuch as it might be expected that the political situation would admit of an extension of the State, and the formation of a joint army under the direction of Prussia, the burden of whose maintenance was to be borne by the members of the Union in common. In this discourse, which met with a joyful response



BIVOUAC OF PRUSSIAN UHLANS.

throughout the whole country, a way was pointed out by which the House of Representatives might co-operate with the Government in mutual understanding at home and increase of power abroad. The House of Deputies adopted by a majority the sanction of the desired indemnity; it was an understanding that a system of constitutional order should be observed, and that the budgetless government, to which there had been recourse through the necessity of circumstances, should be superseded and consigned to oblivion.

Still less opposition was offered by the Parliament to the proposals of the Government as to the extension of the power of the State and the reform of the German Union. On the 17th August the Government laid before the Diet the royal message on the union of the kingdom of Hanover, the electorate of

Hesse, the dukedom of Nassau, and the free city of Frankfort with Prussia, and the scheme was soon afterwards adopted by a large majority. Shortly afterwards followed the annexation of Holstein and Schleswig. On the 20th September, the same day that the victorious army, under its royal commander, marched into Berlin by a magnificently decorated *via triumphalis*, the union of the new provinces with Prussia was declared by law, and publicly announced; and on the 1st October, 1867, the Prussian Constitution came into force. A royal amnesty for all persons under punishment for political and press offences formed the conclusion of these memorable days.

During these events Europe had again been plunged in fresh commotion. On the 7th August, Napoleon had unexpectedly returned from Vichy to St. Cloud; and on the 10th of the same month the hopes of peace were shaken by the intelligence that "with regard to the considerable aggrandizement of Prussia, France had entered into negotiations with the Berlin Cabinet con-



THE MARKET-PLACE, WÜRZBURG.

cerning the Rhine frontier; and that, so far, Prussia did not believe it possible to consent to the French proposals." That France regarded with envy and uneasiness the successes of the Prussian arms, and perceived with displeasure the laudation with which the military power and greatness of Prussia was greeted in England, was palpably evident; the French national spirit of the old school (Chauvinism) demanded "guarantees" for the future security of the kingdom. It transpired later that even in August a demand had been presented to the minister Bismarck to surrender Mayence to France or prepare for war. But on perceiving with what feelings, not only in Prussia, but throughout the whole of Germany, the idea of any cession of territory was received, all further attempts fell to the ground. It was a fresh proof of the moderation of the Emperor that he put on one side any interference in German affairs, dismissed the Minister of Foreign Affairs, who favoured a war policy, and scattered the gathering clouds by his tranquillizing assurances. When at last

the suspicion that the demands of France had been founded on some previous promises of Bismarck, was set at rest, the last hope of obtaining foreign aid disappeared, and a tendency was shown to bow to the inevitable. Hesse-Darmstadt and Saxony joined the before-mentioned treaties; the "dispos-



GERMAN PEASANTS OF ALTENBURG.

sessed" princes released the officials and officers of their former dominions from their oaths of obedience, and thus facilitated entrance into the Prussian service. The Elector of Hesse made an agreement with Prussia, by which, in return for certain property and revenues, he renounced his claims to the Electorate of Hesse in favour of Prussia.

The other dispossessed princes also received large sums as compensation. As, however, King George refused any surrender, and for a long time even maintained his own body of men in another country, the payment of the indemnity money was suspended, and even his other possessions were sequestrated. With the adoption of the Imperial electoral law for the Parliament to

be summoned in connection with the North German league, and a tribute of praise for the deserving statesmen and generals (Bismarck, Roon, Moltke, Herwarth, Steinmetz, Vogel von Falckenstein), the House of Representatives brought its labours to a close for the year which had been so full of significant events and startling changes.

When the magistrates and the city of Berlin offered their congratulations to the King on his return from the battle-field, he replied: "My army, my people under arms, have shown themselves equal to their fathers in heroic courage and perseverance, and have accomplished deeds which will be everlastingly recorded in history. Prussia was compelled to draw the sword when it was evident that her independence was at stake; she has also drawn the sword to bring about the unification of Germany; the former object has been attained, the latter may we also attain under God's further blessing." These wonderful results of the Prussian people in arms had so powerfully impressed the world, that in the South German States and in France a project was at once mooted for a re-organization of the army system on the basis of general compulsory military service, no substitutes being permitted; to be followed by further service in the Landwehr. In Baden, Würtemberg, Bavaria, and Hesse, this new army organization was the necessary result of the offensive and defensive alliance into which these Governments had secretly entered with Prussia on the conclusion of peace, in case of a foreign war. But all political and military organizations must now completely correspond to its aim, if they, as the royal speech declared, depended on the "education of the people." Therefore, both in South Germany, Austria, and France, the main interests of the Governments and the people, together with military reforms and the introduction of financial economy, were directed to the improvement of schools, to liberating them from the oppressive influence of the Church, and to placing them under the protection of the State.

The North German League and the Year 1867.



AFTER all the Governments north of the Maine had declared their accession to the North German league on the ground of the proposed reform of the 10th of June, the plenipotentiaries of the different Governments were invited to Berlin towards the end of the year to deliberate on the constitutional scheme for the league which had been drawn up by Prussia (15th Dec., 1866). Their deliberations were then placed before the Diet which held its sittings at Berlin under the presidency of Simson, the former president of the Frankfort Parliament, and after long discussions and some essential alterations, were finally adopted. Thus the constitutional work was at last accomplished, although many could not bring themselves to be satisfied with a State law, which appeared to correspond so little

in many important points with the principle of constitutionalism. Following the example of this new league constitution, several States north of the Maine entered into a union with common laws, common rights of citizenship, and a common military system after the model of the army organization and under the supreme guidance of Prussia. For the management of the affairs of the Union a council of the league was established, in which a chancellor



PRINCE BISMARCK.

appointed by Prussia, and responsible to the Diet, acts as president. The deputies to this Diet are elected by the direct votes of the people; they receive no payment, but enjoy perfect freedom of speech in the fulfilment of their parliamentary duties. The army of the North German league, organized on the basis of general military service, is under the chief command of the King of Prussia, as general of the league, and is subject to the military laws of Prussia. For defraying the expenditure, every Government of the league has to pay two hundred and twenty-five thalers into the exchequer for every man it is bound to furnish to the strength of the army on a peace footing. Disputes between the allied States are placed in the last instance in the

hands of the higher Court of Appeal at Lübeck. Their relationship to the South German States of Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt is regulated by special treaties. The scheme of the revised constitution was finally adopted by a majority of 230 to 53 on the 15th April, 1867.

While the deliberations on the formation of the league were still in full progress at Berlin, the world was once more filled with apprehensions of war by the intelligence that the King of Holland, who was also grand duke of the former league-state of Luxemburg, which was not included in the North German league, was on the point of yielding the fortress, then occupied by a Prussian garrison, to the Emperor of France, by private agreement, on payment of a sum of money. The news of the Luxemburg treaty produced great excitement in Germany, and there were not wanting voices who loudly clamoured for war. In Holland there was already recruiting for a Hanoverian legion, and even in high circles, the war party had its representatives. In the Diet the deputy Von Benningsen presented an interpellation to the minister-president, in which he referred pointedly to the relationship of the grand duchy to the rest of Germany, and to the Prussian right of investing the fortress. But these clouds also were dispelled by the moderation of Prussia, and the need for peace of all the European Powers. In his reply, Bismarck had already pointed out that the question had a European character, as Luxemburg was placed by the London treaty of 1839 under the guarantee of the Great Powers, and declared that decision in the matter must be left to diplomacy. He attained his object. The King of Holland shrank from the responsibility of a hazardous war, and took council with the Prussian Government before ratifying the agreement; and when he found what an impression the disgraceful transaction had made, he yielded to the general opinion. It was a source of irritation to Napoleon to desist from a plan which had been brought into publicity before its time; but the efforts at mediation made by the other Great Powers—Austria, England, and Russia—succeeded in bringing about an arrangement at a conference in London (7th to 11th May, 1867). Thus the threatening storm passed over; and though, as the English minister declared in parliament, the joint guarantee was but a small security for the future, yet Germany could now continue in peace the development of its national organization.

At the beginning of June, the preliminary treaty for the reconstruction of the empire was agreed upon at Berlin at a conference to which Count Bismarck had summoned the South German ministers. The treaty contained in nine headings the creation of a new and improved system, which, including the whole of Germany without Austria, seemed calculated to bring about a commercial and legal union, which would encircle all the German States in a common bond.

Position and Aims of Prussia.

AFTER the conclusion of the ministers' conference, Count Bismarck accompanied his royal master to the Art and Industrial Exhibition at Paris, which in the course of the summer attracted numerous visitors out of foreign lands, and many of the most powerful sovereigns of Europe, thus uniting the different nations in a new bond of peace and union, and promoting the endeavour for a natural alliance between homogeneous or kindred nationalities. We see the symptoms of this aspiration for union in the disturbed and restless State-life of Italy, which led to the precipitate invasion of the Church

State and the defeat at Mentana; we recognise this aspiration in the understanding between the kingdom of Hungary and the Austrian people on this side the Leitha, on the strength of which Hungary's ancient rights, which were forfeited through the insurrection of 1848 and 1849, were given back to her, and after the solemn coronation of Francis Joseph and his wife as king and queen of Hungary (8th June, 1867), an attempt was made to instil fresh vigour into distracted Austria, and by the establishment of a supreme Imperial ministry and parliamentary representation, to procure a legal organization, and to establish a peaceful union of all nationalities and popular elements; we recognise the same spirit also in the earnest efforts of the Austrian people to break up the Concordat which binds the clergy to a foreign power, and destroys the feeling of union with their own people to whom they are allied by blood, birth, and language. Above all, we recognise the signs of this aspiration in the political efforts of the German nation to give expression to the national feeling of unity by means of treaties and legislative enactments.

The elevation of the Prussian ambassadors as "representatives of the North German league," and the introduction of a German league flag for the navy, were further steps in the same direction. This national work of unification France had already accomplished more than seventy years before in her great revolutionary movement, and by this very means had obtained the preponderating influence in Europe. It was natural, therefore, that many Frenchmen should regard with national prejudices the events in Germany which threatened to endanger this supremacy, and to establish a kingdom in their midst, in which as of old the equilibrium of power in Europe would find its natural centre of gravity. This temper of mind was shown openly in the French press, in the deliberations of the assembly and among the military; and a French-Austrian alliance for the establishment of a South German confederation under the joint Protectorate of both empires, and for a check on Prussian aggrandizement, fell to the ground.



THE KÖNIGSEE IN THE BAVARIAN HIGHLANDS.



POLITICAL EVENTS IN SPAIN; AND THE ŒCUMENICAL COUNCIL AT ROME.

STATE OF SPAIN IN 1848.—THE VARIOUS PARTIES; PROGRESSISTS AND CARLISTS.—NARVAEZ, DUKE OF VALENCIA.—LOPEZ IN CUBA.—INTRIGUES OF MARIA CHRISTINA.—THE LIBERAL UNION.—RISING OF 1854.—NARVAEZ AND O'DONNELL.—WAR WITH MOROCCO.—BATTLE OF TETUAN.—DIFFICULTIES OF QUEEN ISABELLA'S GOVERNMENT.—FREQUENT PRONUNCIAMENTOS.—THE SPANISH REVOLUTION OF 1868.—ANGER AGAINST THE MINISTRY OF GONSALEZ BRAVO.—VICTORY OF SERRANO NEAR CORDOVA.—EXPULSION OF QUEEN ISABELLA.—AMADEUS, SON OF VICTOR EMMANUEL, CHOSEN KING OF SPAIN.—SPANISH REPUBLIC.—THE ŒCUMENICAL COUNCIL IN ROME.—DOGMA OF PAPAL INFALLIBILITY.—THE YEAR 1870.—ROME BECOMES THE CAPITAL OF THE KINGDOM OF ITALY.

SPANISH FACTIONS AFTER THE YEAR 1848.



WHEN the February revolution at Paris shook the world to its foundations, its reaction was also perceptible on the further side the Pyrenees. Nevertheless, the vibration experienced in the Spanish peninsula, which was weakened and disturbed by violent party conflicts, was not sufficient to overthrow the dominion of the Moderate party. Neither the various

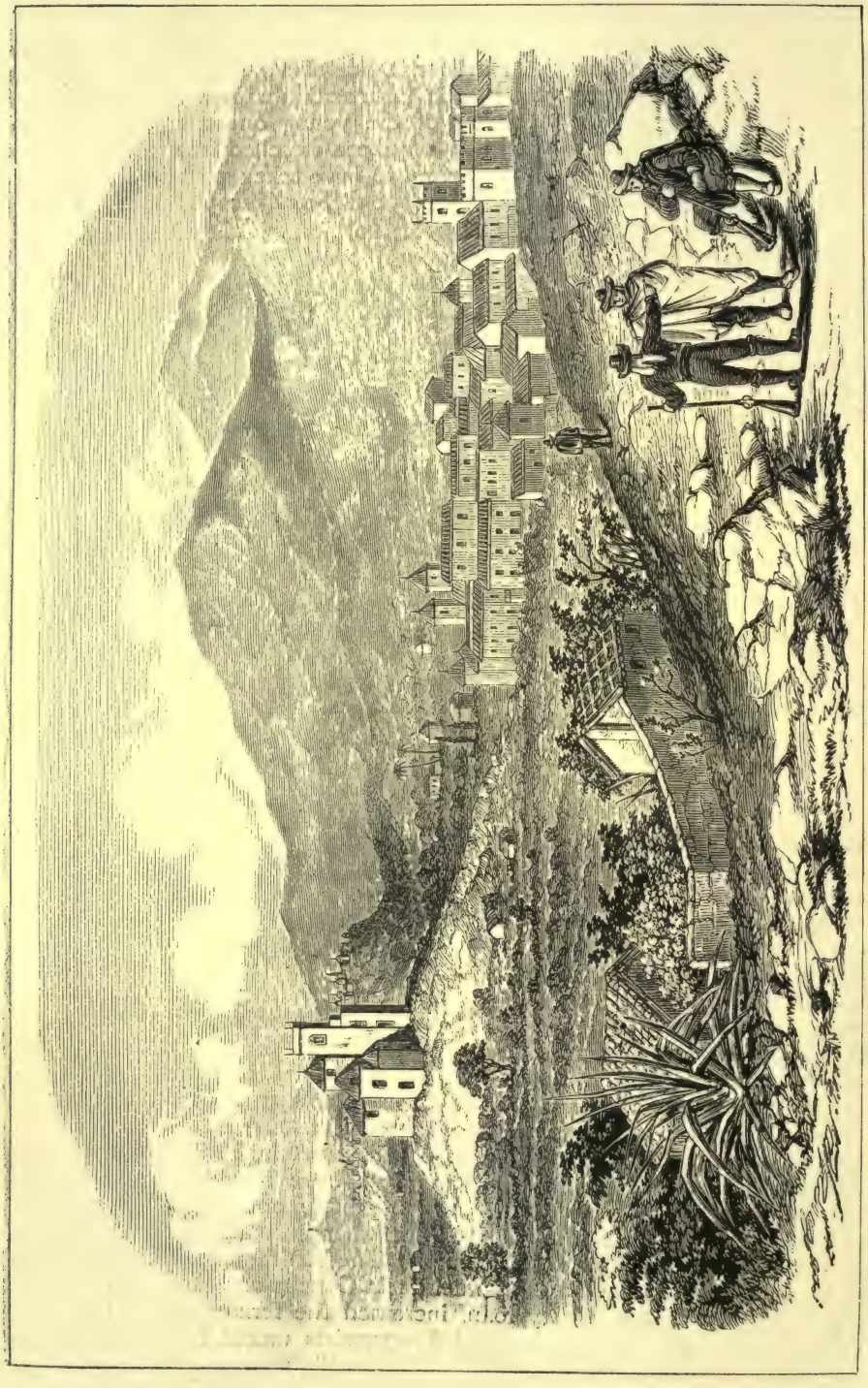
rebellions of the Progressists, who had friends in England, nor the attempt of Cabrera to summon the Carlists of the north to take up arms for the Duke of Montemolin, were successful. Narvaez, Duke of Valencia, who was then at the head of the ministry, repressed the insurrection with a firm hand, and maintained himself through the favour of the young queen against the intrigues of Maria Christina, who had not long been expelled from Spain. The English ambassador Bulwer, who appeared to have taken part in the movement against Narvaez, obtained his passport; Cabrera escaped once more to France.

So strong did the Government feel, that it some time afterwards proclaimed an amnesty which afforded the Carlists an opportunity to return (1850). They threw themselves repentantly at the feet of the queen, and met with grace and pardon. There was also a reconciliation with England. On the other hand, a dispute arose with the United States of North America, when General Lopez, who endeavoured to induce the island of Cuba to revolt from Spain, and join the Union, was taken prisoner after the failure of his undertaking, and executed at Havana (September, 1851).



ESPARTERO.

After the establishment of the French Empire, the court party at Madrid, with the help of the queen-mother, Maria Christina, succeeded in overthrowing the hated minister Narvaez, and increasing the royal prerogative. A Concordat was concluded with Rome which procured the Curia and the Spanish clergy important concessions. This reactionary tendency in the Court and Cabinet gained fresh strength when Queen Isabella received a wound when at church, from a mad priest named Martin Merino (February, 1852). The press was now placed under restrictions, the Cortes was dissolved, the Constitution perverted in an absolutist sense, and Carlists and clericals obtained the most influential State offices and military posts. Dread of a return to the old absolutism led to a union of all Liberals, Progressists as well as Moderates. In vain did the Government have recourse to restrictive measures; the dread of a *coup d'état*, which would jeopardize all guarantees of public liberty, and hatred of Christina and her husband, gave constantly increasing power to the party of resistance. The banishment of distinguished generals, such as O'Donnell and Manuel de la Concha and other officers, and finally an oppressive compulsory loan, increased the fermentation to a point of insurrection. The Moderates and Progressists united in the "Liberal Union." A victorious battle of Leopold O'Donnell's, accompanied by military



SCENE IN ANDALUSIA.

risings in and near Barcelona, and violent skirmishes at the barricades in the capital itself (July, 1854), led at last to a change of ministry and system. Espartero undertook the formation of a new Cabinet, in which O'Donnell was Minister of War. Maria Christina was conducted across the frontier under military escort to Portugal, and her property was confiscated.

In November a newly elected Chamber, the "constituent Cortes," met, in which the Progressists formed the majority. Among many other reforms they introduced a law which regulated the sale of all so-called national domains, church, monasteries, and State property, and was intended to direct the public life and social conditions of Spain into fresh channels. The class of peasantry was also rendered independent, and thus a more extended basis was obtained for a freer State-life. But under the new order of constitutional arrangements, the "Liberal Union" was again scattered. Espartero left the ministry, and once more street conflicts and risings took place in Madrid and Barcelona, which O'Donnell repressed with bloody severity, and then, under the protection of the state of siege, dissolved the constituent Cortes. This formed the transition to a new Cabinet, in which the old Moderate party under Narvaez, Duke of Valencia, obtained the upper hand, and strove for an accommodation between opposing principles. But while the Moderate ministry sought to limit parliamentary prerogative by constitutional reform, and to restrain the revolutionary excesses of the Progressists and Republicans, a reactionary movement set in more and more strongly; so that the "Liberal Union," from fear of forfeiting what they had gained in the year 1854, once more organized their league, and thus compelled the queen to summon O'Donnell to form a new Cabinet (June, 1858), which succeeded in remaining in power for nearly five years. This, however, was more due to general weariness than to a spirit of contentment; for a system which condemned many Spaniards to prison or to the galleys on account of their conversion to Protestantism, and which published protests in favour of the Neapolitan king and Papal Government during the struggle of the Italians for national unity, and also did not appear disinclined to yield to the demands of the queen and the clerical party for an intervention, could not be acceptable to the men of enlightened and advanced views, whose number and power were constantly increasing. And yet these Moderate men also made the discovery that the Ultramontanes would never join hands in any genuine peaceful agreement which did not confer on their party unconditional supremacy. For while the Spaniards, under the leadership of O'Donnell, carried on a successful war with Morocco, and after the battle of Tetuan (4th February, 1860), compelled their transmarine enemy to pay a war indemnity and yield some territory near Ceuta, the Carlists attempted a fresh appeal to arms.

General Ortega, governor of the Balearic Islands, landed with a force near Tortosa, at the mouth of the Ebro, and raised the banner of insurrection, to obtain the crown for the Duke of Montemolin, who was proclaimed King Charles VI. (April, 1860). But the enterprise had a lamentable ending. Ortega was taken prisoner, and shot by order of court martial. The two sons of Don Carlos were also captured, and only after they had formally renounced their claims to the throne were they again set at liberty and escorted over the Spanish frontier. The peaceable and moderate government of O'Donnell was, however, a great boon to the country. The Dominican Republic on the originally Spanish half of the island of San Domingo recognised voluntarily the supremacy of Spain, only for a short time, it is true, and the military expedition of the three nations against Mexico was instigated by the Spanish Government.

But the strange behaviour of the Spanish general Prim on this expedition excited the displeasure of France; nevertheless, it received the approbation of the Cortes and the Government. On account of the close relationship in which Queen Isabella had always stood towards the French Court, and especially towards the Empress Eugenie, a misunderstanding necessarily arose, which, as in the meantime a feud had again occurred in the Liberal Union, soon led to a change of ministry, and finally to a dissolution of the Cabinet (March, 1863). While formerly the historical life of Spain had consisted for the most part of petty party and political struggles, which paralysed the strength of the people, and robbed the chivalrous-minded nation of all importance among the European States, this unworthy system



LISBON.

of a political life without higher aims and tasks, now reached its climax. The government of Queen Isabella and her mother Christina was nothing but a chain of the most perverse intrigues, plots, and pronunciamentos, a desolate alternation of reaction and revolution, of despotism and anarchy. The frequent change of ministry prevented any firm or consistent political action; only with difficulty could the risings and popular fermentation which occurred, now among the military, now in democratic circles, be repressed; the war in St. Domingo and with Peru increased the financial difficulty, so that even the queen found that it was necessary to sacrifice a large portion of the Crown property. In vain did Narvaez, who was again at the head of affairs, have recourse to measures of restraint against the press, and dismiss many of the opposition leaders, such as the republican professor

Emilio Castelar; the more the Camarilla exerted its disastrous influence on the progress of the Government, the more did the opinion gain ground that no worthy State-life could be obtained under the Bourbon dynasty in Spain. Republican ideas penetrated all classes, and reached even the ranks of the military; another party inscribed the "Unity of Iberia," the union of Spain and Portugal under the House of Braganza, on their banners. Everywhere deep indignation prevailed at the unworthy game of palace intrigues, and the capricious tyranny of a queen who sought to compensate for an immoral life by superstitious piety and ostentatious devotion to the Church, the Papacy, and legitimacy; and who paid more attention to the counsels of the court Camarilla than to the demands of the nation, and the wishes and plans of the Cortes and ministers.

The Spanish Revolution of 1868, and the New Constitution.



With such principles prevailing, a moderate ministry could only hope to guide the vacillating State warily between the perilous rocks of revolution and reaction; therefore, when Narvaez at last yielded to the general obstacles, the conduct of the government was made over once more to the men of the Liberal Union, among whom Marshals O'Donnell and Serrano possessed the most influence (June, 1865). The latter sought above all to conciliate the advanced party, and at the same time a closer bond of friendship was entered into with France. But all these means no longer availed to save the enfeebled State. The Democrats and Progressists made more exorbitant demands, such as universal suffrage, and the separation of Church and State.

General Prim was their leader and chief. In different large towns and provinces, especially in Catalonia and Valencia, there were republican outbreaks of violence and armed risings (Jan., 1866). But they led to nothing, owing to their own aimlessness. Prim was driven back towards the south, and crossed the Portuguese frontier with 700 armed men. Thence he set out for England to await a more favourable time. In June, however, fresh military rebellions took place, which were repressed in Madrid, Salamanca, and other places with bloody severity. A plan was now determined on by the court for making an end of the agitations for freedom and the anarchical proceedings of the Progressists. A new ministry, in which Narvaez was again the leader, while Gonzalez Bravo was governor of the interior, consented to these schemes, and endeavoured by a strict government, with the help of the military and police, to paralyse public life. At the end of the year, Narvaez caused a number of deputies to be imprisoned and banished to the Canary Islands and other places of transportation. The same fate befel Marshal Serrano; while, on the other hand, O'Donnell and other prominent

members of the Liberal Union escaped to Holland. The Cortes was dissolved, and the ebullitions of the Opposition press were punished with death (March, 1867). A terrorism such as Spain had not seen for a long while, backed up by courts martial and a state of siege, spread throughout the kingdom, and fettered the whole intellectual and political life of the nation. The members of the Cortes, elected under pressure, offered no resistance; the ministry of Narvaez was entirely under the influence of the court Camarilla; constitutional government was but a phantom and delusion; even the brother of the royal consort, the Infant, Henry of Bourbon, who sympathised with Liberal tendencies, was deprived of his dignity and honours by a royal decree, and withdrew to France (March, 1867). Different insurrections in Catalonia and other districts were repressed, and afforded the Government a welcome opportunity for maintaining martial law or decreeing it anew. Communication between Madrid and Rome became more and more frequent. The protection of the Holy See was declared to be the first national duty; and in spite of the prevailing financial distress, large sums were continually despatched to the apostolic city.

This reactionary system underwent no change when the head of the ministry, Marshal Narvaez, died suddenly; for Gonzalez Bravo now took the head of the Cabinet, which, according to his own declaration, was to be "guided by the spirit of the Duke of Valencia." And only too soon did the new president of the ministry show that he contemplated carrying the system of terrorism to even greater extremes. He caused several of the most influential and distinguished generals to be imprisoned and banished, and ordered the Duke of Montpensier, the husband of the queen's only sister, to quit the country, as he served as a leader to the enemies of the Government. This extreme measure was the climax of the reaction. For a long time the Spanish nation had been imbued with the deepest resentment towards the dynasty of the Bourbons, who, by their despotism as well as their moral degradation, undermined the strength of the people; and were especially incensed towards Queen Isabella, who, by her dissolute private life, to which religious devotion only served as a hypocritical mask, had trifled away every vestige of respect and veneration. But disunion among the different parties had hitherto stood in the way of a general rising. Now, however, the heads of the three factions—the Liberal Union, the Progressists, and the Democrats—entered into a compromise, after long negotiations, for a joint attack on the queen and the hated Government. They formed an alliance with General Prim, who was in England, and who had already the year before rendered assistance in the rebellion in Catalonia, and now secretly arrived at Gibraltar.



The Expulsion of Isabella; Rule of Amadeus.

IT was during the lovely days of September, when Queen Isabella was at St. Sebastian, and was negotiating an alliance with the Emperor of the French at Biarritz, that the intelligence was suddenly spread abroad that Admiral Topete had raised the standard of revolt in the harbour of Cadiz, and, together with the banished generals, had issued a manifesto, in which the Spaniards were implored to forget party differences and to co-operate in the overthrow of the Government. Cadiz, Seville, and other towns immediately joined in the insurrection, and the watch-word for revolution was given, and quickly spread throughout the whole of Spain. It was in vain that the queen dismissed the ministry of Gonzalez Bravo, and placed General Concha, Marquis de la Habana, at the head of the Cabinet; General Novaliches, who was appointed commander-in-chief against the insurgents, was signally defeated by Serrano not far from Cordova (Sept., 1868), and a few weeks later the victor was able to march in triumph into Madrid; and in conjunction with Prim, Topete, and Olozaga, succeeded in forming a Provisional Government until the Cortes should agree on the future Constitution of Spain.



LEOPOLD I., KING OF BELGIUM.

Isabella was soon convinced that her rule was at an end, and that it would be dangerous to remain longer on Spanish soil; therefore, with her weak husband, her favourite Marsori, her confessor Claret and a numerous retinue, she quitted St. Sebastian and crossed over into French territory (30th September). After the removal of the court, the old party divisions again arose. While the Provisional Government remained faithful to the monarchy, in the south the adherents of the Federative Republic gained more and more ground, and in the north the Carlists raised the standard of legitimacy, and proclaimed the grand-

son of the old Don Carlos, King Charles VII. The Carlist rising had, however, no result, and scarcely any of the peasant bands, led by priests, were able to possess themselves of any important place.

In Madrid the newly won liberty afforded an opportunity for violent attacks against the priesthood and the Church; many monasteries were destroyed by the wrath of the people, schools were declared free, and in Madrid and Barcelona the Protestant worship was permitted. The elections for the Cortes, which took place in the early weeks of the year 1869, resulted in favour of the Monarchists. But the difficulty in finding a suitable ruler, combined with the disfavour into which the Bourbon royal family had fallen with the nation, at last resulted in the government being constituted on a republican basis. This arrangement underwent no change when the Cortes, after many stormy meetings, published a legal proclamation of the new Constitution, in which a hereditary king, in conjunction with the Senate and House of Representatives, was to be the guardian of the State, while the nation was to be guaranteed all the privileges of a free people in connection with politics, religion, and social life. Marshal Serrano was made regent, while Prim was placed at the head of the ministry, and General Dulce undertook the chief command in Cuba. There was still, however, a strong party in favour of a reigning sovereign, and internal conflicts still continued between the Republicans and Monarchists, until the project of inviting the Prince of Hohenzollern to accept the crown ultimately led to the great war between France and Germany. When the German army was already before Paris, a decision was at last arrived at with regard to the future king of Spain, in 1870. Victor Emmanuel permitted his second son, Amadeus of Aosta, to accept the offered crown. But before the new sovereign made his entry into his new kingdom, General Prim was assassinated as he was returning from a meeting to his own house (27th December). The culprit remained undiscovered; probably the "king-maker" fell a victim to Republican revenge. The powers of the young king did not, however, prove adequate to restore peace and order in the distracted country; and after a struggle of two and a half years with the discordant elements in the Representative Chamber as well as in the army, he renounced the throne, surrendered his powers to the Cortes, and took ship from Lisbon to Italy in February, 1872.

Although the Radicals and Republicans united in a temporary parliamentary majority, it was questionable how long this union would last. The real Republicans, with the new ministers Figueras and Castelar at their head, were essentially Federalists; while the Radicals as Monarchists and Republicans by compulsion, were, above all, separatists. Behind this division lurked the presidentship of the Alphonsists, which, though it possessed only about twenty advocates in the Cortes, had a strong following in the army as well as among the citizens, while the Carlists had adherents among the lower classes and the clergy of the northern provinces.

THE ŒCUMENICAL COUNCIL AT THE VATICAN.



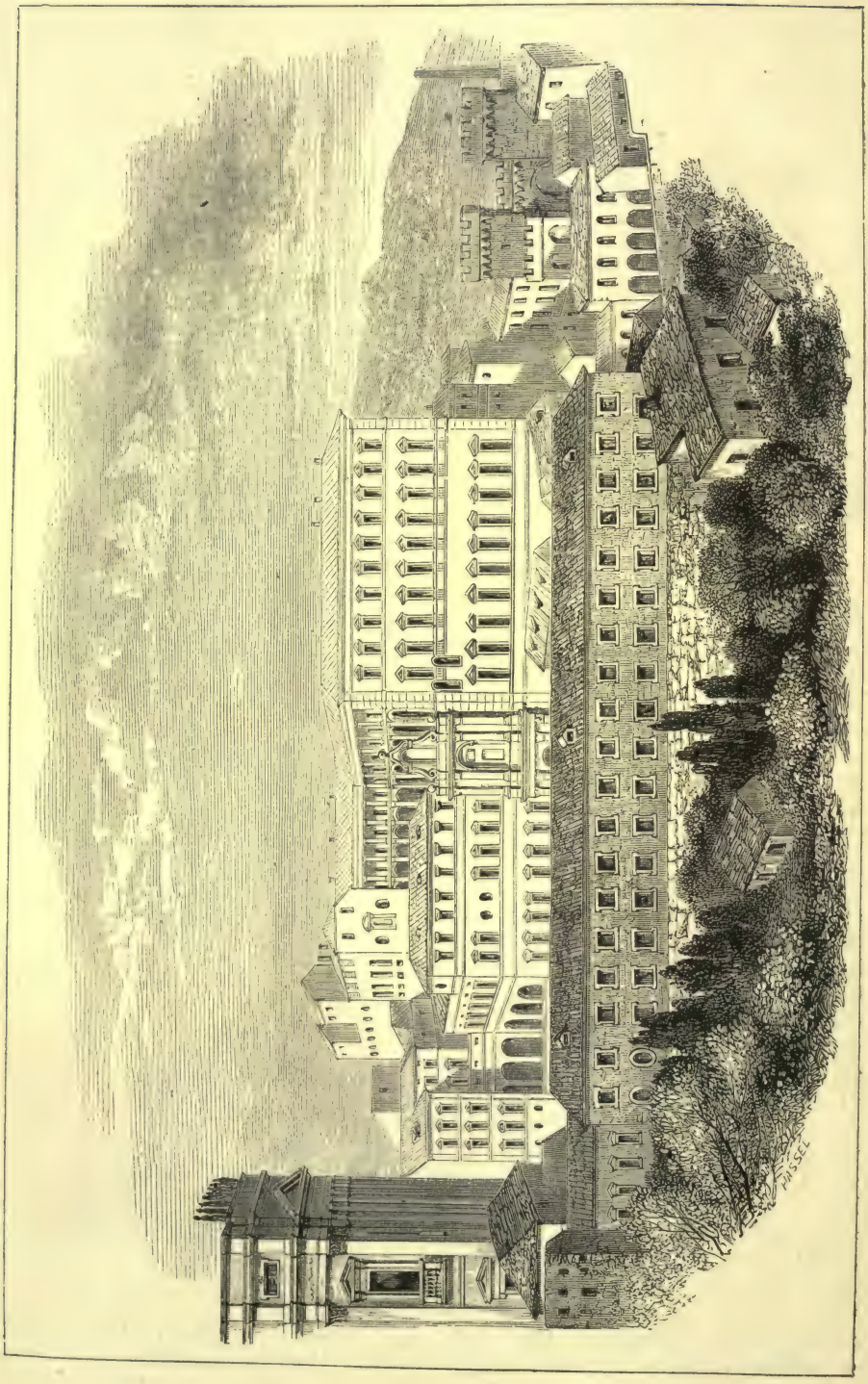
SHEPHERD OF THE ABRUZZI.

ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS.—Since Pius IX., on the 8th December, 1854, had declared the new dogma of the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary, and then ten years afterwards had issued a decree in which he condemned in fulminating tones everything of which his contemporaries had reason to be proud as the results of modern State-life, the final principles and aims of his policy had been more and more evident. He regarded himself as the appointed agent for the completion of the mighty structure of the Church; he also regarded it as especially his mission to complete and amplify the Catholic dogma itself in the two points in which it showed a want of continuity,—with regard to the "Mother of God," and the infallibility of the Pope. In connection with the latter point it had been questionable, since the times of the great councils of the 15th and 16th centuries, whether this infallibility in matters of belief rested with the general Church Assembly or with the Pope of Rome.

In spite of the general disinclination to revive the holding of an Œcumenical Council, a summons was issued on the 29th June, which included not only the bishops of the Eastern Church, but also the Protestants, who were invited to return to the "fold of St. Peter." The proposition was received with more or less reservation and indifference, except in the case of the nineteen German bishops, who declared that the Council would introduce no new dogma, nor encroach upon civil organizations; at the same time, they conjured the Pope to desist from his project. The answer was a promulgation of an order of business, in which the bringing forward of suggestions rested with the Pope; at the same time, precautions were taken for preserving the strictest secrecy in the deliberations—precautions, however, which were successfully evaded, as a long and exhaustive account appeared in a number of letters (by "Quirinus") in the *Augsburger Allgemeine Zeitung* throughout the whole eight months' duration of the Synod. The parties gradually divided; and it appeared that the majority, consisting



ALBANIANS.



VIEW OF THE VATICAN.

of Italians and Spaniards, titular bishops, and about 300 priests, whose expenses for maintenance in Rome were paid by the Pope himself, now stood opposed to an increasing minority of German, French, and Hungarian bishops, who wished to preserve the ancient rights of the bishopric, and to give the Papal monarchy an aristocratic limitation. As time went on, the politeness and courtesy which characterized the earliest meetings gave way to exhibitions of violent party animosity; while the strong personal feeling shown by the Pope, who openly and passionately espoused the cause of the Infallibilists, provoked great resentment, and appeared to have destroyed in a moment the magic power of personal veneration for the Holy Father. While addresses were, on the one hand, presented in favour of precedence for the doctrine of infallibility, a counter-address was handed in, signed by 137 bishops, who, however, represented at least eighty millions of Catholics. Soon, however, the other point of the Pope's projected measure with regard to the Catholic faith, was adopted by common consent, though subject to considerable alterations (April 24th).

But while, during the first half of the year, the attention of the world was almost exclusively directed to affairs at Rome, and Döllinger of Munich and Gratry of Paris knew how to evoke a lively interest even among the laity in the theological disputes at the Vatican, the threatening storm-cloud of the Franco-German war began to gather on the horizon of Europe at the beginning of July; and when at last a majority of 451 declared the Pope infallible (14th July), the event remained almost unnoticed by the world at large. The Council was then adjourned to the 11th November; but before this period had intervened, the world had not only many other things to think of, but the Pope, who had been declared infallible, had prepared for himself ordeals of astounding severity; his temporal power, to which he had clung so obstinately, was completely shattered, and he regarded himself as a prisoner in his own palace. At the same moment .that the High Church Jesuit party had succeeded in asserting the doctrine of infallibility, and in elevating Papal absolutism over Church and episcopate, the Church State was incorporated with the kingdom of Italy, and the temporal rule of the ecclesiastical chief was at an end. Scarcely had the French garrison troops set sail, to defend their own



STREET OF ZELL.

native country in its death-struggle (September, 1870), than the Florentine Government proclaimed the September treaty, and placed a reconnoitring army on the Roman frontier, while Bixio, Garibaldi's former comrade-in-arms, invaded Civita Vecchia. An attempt was next made to induce the Pope to consent to a peaceful abdication, by offering him not only the continued enjoyment of full authority in all ecclesiastical and spiritual affairs, but also the honorary rights of a sovereign, the possession of the Leonine portion of the city, on the right bank of the Tiber, together with the Vatican; but as he decisively rejected all conciliatory proposals, the State was occupied up to the walls of the capital.

From all sides there streamed forth Roman fugitives and exiles, who were ready to aid Victor Emmanuel in the overthrow of the spiritual despotism. On the 20th September, the Italians encamped to the east of the city before the Porta Pia, and threatened to surround Rome in case of resistance. Some efforts at defence were made by the Papal troops within the city, but a three hours' cannonade sufficed to reduce Rome to a capitulation (20th September, 1870). The Papal army was disbanded, and the foreign mercenaries were compelled to quit the peninsula; a Provisional Government took charge of public affairs, until preparations were made for a popular vote, or plebiscite, by which means, as the discontented for the most part abstained from voting, the people of Rome and of the whole Church State declared almost unanimously in favour of union with the kingdom of Italy under Victor Emmanuel's rule. This occurred on the 3rd October, and on the 9th of the same month the annexation was accomplished. To pacify the indignation of the Catholic world, the Italian Government declared that the Pope should hold, as heretofore, the dignity of a sovereign, and exercise with perfect freedom all the privileges and official powers of the head of the Church. But the ban of excommunication thundered forth by Pius IX. against Victor Emmanuel bore witness to the deep resentment felt by the Holy Father; while the guarantee law, which declared the person of the Pope to be holy and inviolable, did not avail to allay the wrath of the clerical party.

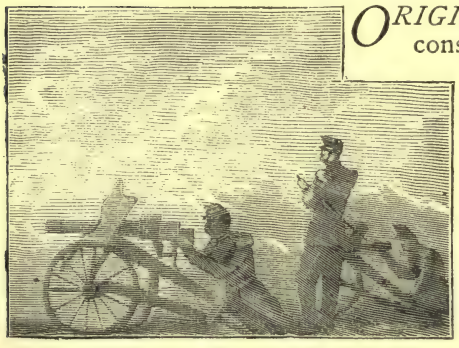




THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR OF 1870-1871.

THE GREAT YEAR 1870-1871.—ORIGIN OF THE WAR.—FEELING AGAINST PRUSSIA IN PARIS.—THE CANDIDATURE FOR THE SPANISH THRONE, AND EVENTS AT EMS.—ENTHUSIASM IN GERMANY.—"DIE WACHT AM RHEIN."—MARCH OF THE FRENCH ARMIES TO THE FRONTIER.—THE FIRST ENCOUNTER; SAARBRÜCK.—THE GREAT BATTLE OF WOERTH-REICHSHOFEN; DEFEAT OF THE FRENCH ARMY.—THE ARMIES IN LORRAINE.—WAR AROUND METZ.—BATTLES OF BORNY AND MARS LA TOUR.—THE STRUGGLE OF GRAVELOTTE.—THE CATASTROPHE OF SEDAN, AND DESTRUCTION OF THE SECOND FRENCH EMPIRE.—SURRENDER OF NAPOLEON III. TO THE KING OF PRUSSIA.

THE GREAT YEAR 1870-1871.



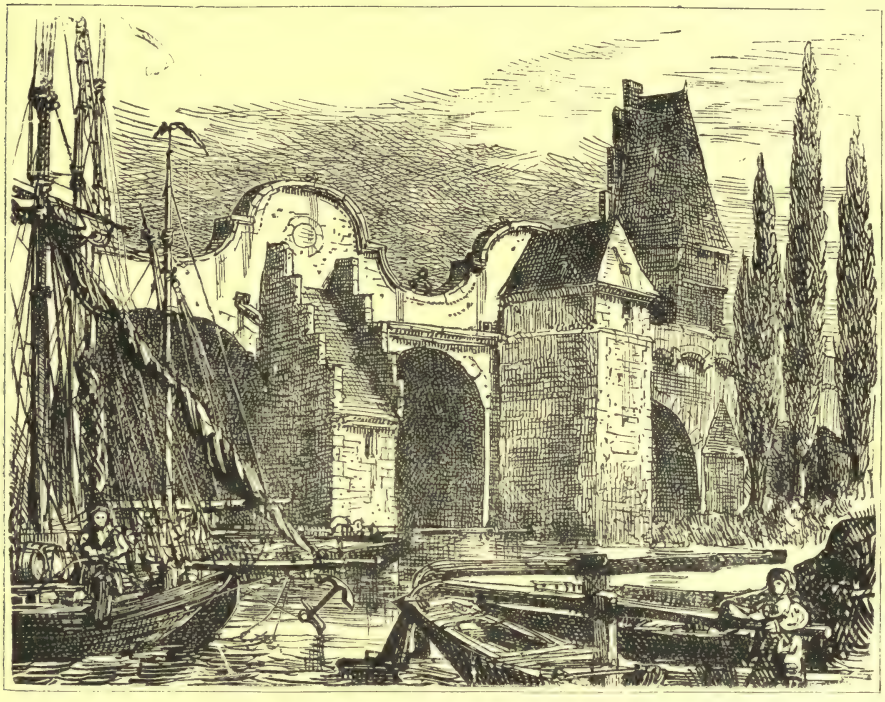
ORIGIN of the Franco-German War.—The constitutional empire of Napoleon was already formed in the year 1870, and by means of a plebiscite had obtained the sanction of the French nation. Émile Ollivier was removed from the camp of the Liberal opposition to the head of the new parliamentary Government, and the whole world rejoiced to hear from his lips "that peace was never more assured than at the present time." This declaration was received with implicit credence, especially as



MOLTKE.

Bismarck's revelations with regard to the proposal of the French Government that the Emperor, in return for Belgium and Luxemburg, should consent to the admission of the South German States into the northern league, were only made at a later period. The Napoleonic policy, however, in spite of protestations to the contrary, was evidently directed towards the aggrandizement of the empire. The Emperor knew that if he by this means did homage to the vanity and selfishness of the French nation, he would elevate and strengthen his own authority, and secure the future of his dynasty. This appeared to him all the more necessary as the Opposition continued to gain ground. Over 50,000 negative votes were given by the Army and Navy on the voting of the plebiscite. The country was threatened by a bad harvest, and in the Legislative Chamber the reversal of the sentence of banishment against the Orleans family was discussed. These alarming signs could best be repressed by a national war. And if it were possible to once more conquer the Rhine frontier, which every Frenchman regarded as belonging to his country, the name of Napoleon would be again as celebrated as in the days of his uncle; the Opposition would vanish like a cloud, and France would be bound up with

Bonapartism for all time. Extensive military preparations were commenced, the land and sea forces were strengthened, and a new murderous weapon was introduced called the *mitrailleuse*, or multiplying rifle-cannon, which could fire off at one time upon the enemy five-and-twenty balls, like an infernal machine. Germany was still disunited, and secret agents and correspondents



ANCIENT BRIDGE AT FRANKFORT.

bore ample testimony to the antipathy of Democrats, Ultramontanes, Particularists, and malcontents of all sorts against the rapacious and despotic Prussia. In Austria the defeats of the year 1866 had not been forgotten, and the Zechs, Poles, and Hungarians, who gained more and more power in the State, all sympathised with France, and in this feeling were at one with the court; for the friendly visit which the Czar of Russia had made about this time to King William at Ems had produced suspicion and envy at Vienna and in Bohemia. Thus many circumstances combined to inspire the French Government with the belief that the moment had arrived when a blow could be safely struck at Prussia, and the hotly desired "revenge for Sadowa" be gratified. The warnings of the French military plenipotentiary at Berlin, Colonel Stoffel, who declared that Prussia was fully prepared for a struggle if it were thrust upon her, were disregarded, and every preparation was made for a sudden attack.

The Candidature for the Spanish Throne, and Events at Ems.



THE HAND MITRAILLEUSE.

AFTER the Spanish Government had vainly sought for nearly a year to obtain a king who would govern the country according to the new monarchical Constitution, the chief minister entered into negotiations with a German prince, Leopold of Hohenzollern, who was distantly related to the Prussian royal house, and who, by the marriage of his grandfather Charles with Antoinette Murat, and of his father Charles Anton with a daughter of Stephanie Beauharnais, might also be regarded as a member of the Bonaparte family. Prince Leopold showed himself prepared to accept the invitation; and as he was of age, and master of his actions, informed the King of Prussia of his decision. In Paris, however, where other schemes were favoured, the candidature was regarded as a new proof of Prussian ambition and desire for aggrandizement. The greatest excitement prevailed at the Tuileries; and Count Benedetti, the French ambassador at Berlin, was commissioned to give expression to the painful feelings which the incident had evoked in Paris. In spite of the answer from Berlin, that the Spanish candidature did not concern the Prussian Government, the negotiations began to assume a more excited character, and were animated by suspicion and menaces towards Prussia. The warning voices of the feeble Opposition party fell unheeded; the journalists and the war partisans became more and more clamorous, and proclaimed in advance a certain triumph. At one time, however, a satisfactory arrangement of the dispute appeared to be arrived at; for although King William declined to prohibit the Prince of Hohenzollern from accepting the crown, yet he gave his ready concurrence when Leopold, sensible of the great responsibility under which he would lay himself with regard to the rest of Europe, voluntarily renounced the Spanish throne, and gave back to the nation its freedom of action. This decision was now regarded even in Paris as sufficiently satisfactory; but the Emperor wavered.

After many ominous deliberations and resolutions, in which the Empress appeared to have the decisive word, the Duke de Gramont declared that the renunciation of the throne by the Prince of Hohenzollern was only a secondary

affair, as France had never consented to his candidature; that the grievance to France consisted in the King of Prussia having permitted the Prince to come forward as a candidate without first consulting with the Paris Cabinet. France's honour demanded that, for this, satisfaction and expiation should be obtained. Repeated audiences took place between the French ambassador and the King of Prussia, who, however, could not be brought to declare that he would oppose any future candidature on the part of the Prince of Hohenzollern. This refusal was declared by France to be an injury to French honour, and a menace to the national security. It was of no avail that the Opposition party raised their voices against this decision, that Thiers, hitherto



PRUSSIAN CAVALRY OUTPOST.

a zealous champion of the "natural frontiers" of France, was now opposed to a German war. The war party had so completely the upper hand, that all resistance was repressed, and was branded as a mark of unpatriotic feeling. Ollivier acted in accordance with the temper of the Assembly when he declared on the 15th July that the reserves were to be summoned, and necessary measures taken to preserve the honour and security of France. Never since the constitution of the Empire had the press, public opinion, and the voice of the people in every stratum of society been so in harmony with the Government and the Legislative Chambers as in the hot days when the declaration of war was hurled forth against Prussia. In Germany the announcement was received with a deep and wide-spread enthusiasm, an instinctive feeling that a noble conflict was to be entered upon, and a joyful eagerness for the struggle. Nowhere did a depressed or anxious feeling prevail. The new popular song,

"Die Wacht am Rhein," which spread like lightning throughout the country, was the expression of this firm reliance in the German army and people. It did not, like the Marseillaise, summon the sons of the fatherland to aggressive action against the enemy; it only declared the steadfast resolution of the German nation to guard and defend the German frontier stream.

THE FIRST ENCOUNTER; SAARBRÜCK.



AS when, more than three hundred years before, King Henry II. of France advanced to the conquest of Metz and Lorraine, a manifesto proclaimed that the protection of German liberty was the only aim of the war, and that the king wished to derive from it no advantages for himself. The Emperor Napoleon also expressed himself in a similar manner in his proclamation, when, after making over the regency to his wife Eugénie, he set out with his son at the head of the army (23rd July, 1870). By the end of July also King William quitted his capital to join his army, in order, as set forth in his parting address "to my people," to fight for the honour of Germany and for the preservation of the highest welfare of the nation. An amnesty for political offences was intended as a sign that at these eventful moments an inward sense of reconciliation should take possession of every mind.

The main army of the French, about 200,000, was stationed in and around Metz, under Marshal Bazaine, Canrobert, and General Bourbaki. Thither the Emperor proceeded, accompanied by his son and Marshal Lebœuf, the minister of war and commander-in-chief of the whole army. Further east was stationed the southern army under MacMahon, Duke of Magenta, the most famous general in France, composed of about 100,000 men, among them the dusky-coloured soldiers of Africa, and the Zouaves, principally Frenchmen by birth, the "prodigals" of great cities. It was pushed forward towards Alsace, and its vanguard remained on the Upper Rhine under General Douay. In the camp at Chalons was a third army, while a well-manned fleet sailed from Cherbourg through the Channel, to cruise in the North Sea and Baltic, to blockade the harbours, and to land on the coasts. The German army also was composed of three divisions: the first under General Steinmetz, consisting of 61,000 men, on the right wing; the second under Prince Friedrich Karl, consisting of 206,000 men, in the centre; and the third, numbering 180,000

men, under the Crown Prince of Prussia and General Blumenthal, forming the left wing. In the centre was the king, the commander-in-chief of the



FIELD MITRAILLEUSES OF 1870.

whole force, the excellent organization of which he could regard as his own especial work, and with him the general staff under the guidance of the

astute Moltke. The chancellor Count Bismarck, and the minister of war Von Roon, were also in attendance. General Vogel von Falckenstein organized at Hanover the North German coast defence against the enemy's fleet. The first encounter between the hostile forces took place on the second of August, near Saarbrück, when, although the Prussians, after a contest in which the losses were equal on both sides, retired in good order, the engagement was proclaimed in the French papers as a brilliant victory, and was used as a means of glorification for the Imperial name. Soon after the occurrence of this military spectacle, the only result of which was the cannonading of the works of Saarbrück, when the town also experienced some injury, the Emperor returned to the fortress of Metz.

The Great Battle of Woerth-Reichshofen.



A FRENCH division of MacMahon's army had been despatched under General Abel Douay towards the frontier of Rhenish Bavaria, and had invested the small fortified town of Weissenburg. The Prussian army under the Crown Prince was brought forward towards the Lauter, and marched southwards between Weissenburg and Lauterburg. The right wing, composed chiefly of Bavarians, Hessians, Silesians, and Thuringians, then made an attack upon the enemy, and gained the first victory. Weissenburg was captured in a hot struggle; and the French, in spite of their brave resistance, were repulsed (4th Aug.). Douay himself lost his life in the battle. On both sides the losses were considerable.

Two days later followed the bloody battle of Woerth-Reichshofen, which decided the fate of the whole war; the struggle ended, after a fifteen hours' engagement, in a complete victory for the Germans. While the remnant of MacMahon's south army made a hasty retreat towards Niederbronn, Zabern, and Nancy, to unite with the other Imperial troops at Chalons, the army of the Crown Prince took possession of Alsace, and prepared for the conquest of the fortresses on the left bank of the Rhine, from Strasburg to Belfort. The losses were very heavy on both sides. Among the dead were General Colson, the head of MacMahon's general staff, and General Raoul, leader of the third division. Even the state carriage of the Marshal, with his letters and documents, and the war chest with considerable sums of



THE BATTLE-FIELD OF WOERTH.

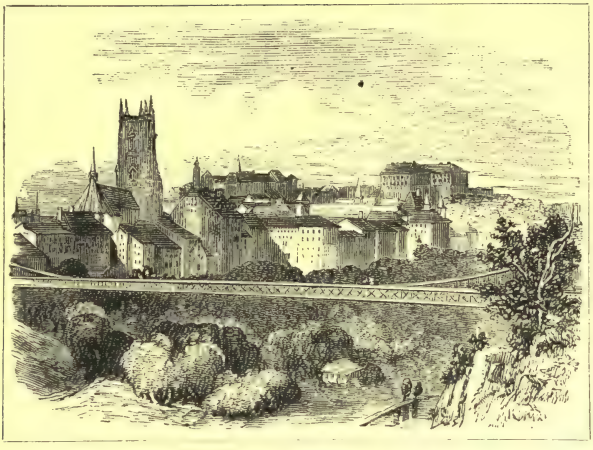
money, fell into the hands of the victors. For many miles the streets and fields were covered with weapons, war ammunition, etc.; and on the German side also, many brave soldiers, including officers, were left dead upon the battle-field. On the same day, at the battle of Saarbrück, occurred another disaster to the French arms. The army corps of General Froissard had evacuated Saarbrück, and had taken up a position on the woody mountain road from Spicheren and Forbach, which appeared invincible. The batteries



COUNT PALIKAO.

of the enemy were stationed in the valley below in covered positions; two attacks made by the Germans were, however, repulsed, and many a brave soldier was sacrificed on the rocky heights and ridges. Under General von Goeben, however, another attempt was made to oust the enemy from their strong position; and after a spirited resistance on the part of the French, they were compelled to yield, and but for the approaching darkness, their retreat would have been transformed into a complete flight.

The War around Metz.



THE Armies in Lorraine. — These events had a decisive effect upon the whole war. The exultation which, owing to false intelligence at the Bourse, had taken possession of the French capital, was of short duration, and soon yielded to general confusion. The movements of the victorious troops who occupied the passes, and after the capture of the small fortress of Lützelstein penetrated as far as the Moselle, while General Beyer commenced the siege of Strasburg, were so sudden and overpowering that it was already thought necessary to take precautions for the security of Paris. In the Legislative Chamber, which was hastily summoned, such keen opposition was exhibited towards the Government, that the ministry of Ollivier resigned; and the Empress Eugénie commissioned the aged general Montauban, count of Palikao, with the formation of a new Cabinet. The first measure of the new ministry was the increase of the military forces, by fresh levies, the formation of mobile guards, and by war loans; at the same time the chief command was withdrawn from Marshal Lebœuf and handed over to Marshal Bazaine, which was regarded as a covert deposition of the Emperor himself from the chief command, though the latter, with his son, still remained with the Metz army, without, however, interfering with Bazaine's operations. The new generalissimo now united Froissard's army corps with the other divisions; while MacMahon with the remains of his shattered army turned farther south towards Chalons, where fresh troops had collected. With Bazaine at



MARSHAL LEBŒUF.

Metz was also the old general Changarnier,—who at the outbreak of the war had offered the emperor his services, and had returned from exile,—as well as Canrobert, Bourbaki, and others.

The Prussian army, with King William at the head, had in the meantime combined with the other German troops and marched into Lorraine, taking possession of Nancy and the whole open country (11th Aug.). A proclamation was now issued by the king, declaring that he did not make war on French citizens, and promising that they should enjoy perfect security for their persons and their property, so long as they did not oppose the German troops. With the entry of the Crown Prince into Nancy, Lorraine might be regarded as a conquered country, although Metz and other frontier fortresses were still in the enemy's hands. And that the Prussians already regarded the acquisition of the districts and towns which had formerly belonged to the empire as their principal aim, was proved by the installation of German governors in the two provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. The world looked on amazed at the successes of the Prussian arms, and at the entire breaking up of the Napoleonic supremacy, which for two decades had dazzled Europe with the show of power and greatness. That even the Emperor himself felt a dim foreboding of his destiny was proved by an article in his official organ on the 8th August, in which, together with the praises of French bravery and the confident hope of a heroic rising of the whole nation, was a half-veiled but indubitable appeal for help to foreign powers.



Borny and Mars la Tour.



ABOUT the middle of the month of August, great events were preparing in the neighbourhood of the Moselle. At the same time that the Crown Prince with the third division was advancing towards Nancy, the first division, under General Steinmetz, started from Saarbrück to Metz, where the flower of the French army, consisting of over 200,000 men, was stationed, while farther south was Prince Friedrich Karl in the direction of Pont à Mousson. In order to oppose a larger force to the forces of the enemy, it was decided in the French council of war to withdraw from Metz to Verdun, and to unite with MacMahon's troops at Chalons, so that the decisive battle should be fought in the treeless plains of Champagne or in the Argonnes, where, on a previous occasion, the first invasion by the Germans into the young republic had been repulsed.

To frustrate this object and to prevent the union of the two armies was the aim of the great struggles around Metz, and this object was at last successfully accomplished by the admirable bravery, discipline, and indomitable steadfastness of the German soldiers, fighting under the eye of their king. While Prince Friedrich Karl with the most rapid marches brought forward his troops to prevent as long as possible Bazaine's intended retirement from Metz, two divisions, under General von Goltz and Zastrow, made an attack on the retreating forces of the enemy, and brought about the battles of Colombey and Borny, which were fought with equal bravery and determination, and with equal losses on both sides (14th Aug.).

On the following day, which was Napoleon's birthday, always celebrated since the existence of the Empire with great demonstrations, and which had been fixed upon as the day of entry into Berlin, the French brought up their entire forces from Metz to march upon Verdun. As it subsequently transpired, Napoleon and his son were with the expedition, and passed the night at Gravelotte; afterwards, however, he quitted the army, and set out by a circuitous path with a small escort, and in constant danger of being captured by the Uhlans, through Etain to Verdun, and thence to Chalons. But Bazaine could not march quickly enough for the vanguard of the second army to reach Trouville by the evening. As the Germans had determined, by the exertion of all their strength, to force the French army to stand still between the two rivers, the Moselle and the Maas, and to commence an attack, these advanced troops were obliged, in spite of weariness, to march into the field at break of day. To them fell the difficult task of engaging and detaining the superior forces of the enemy, until the arrival of the other divisions to their aid. For nearly six hours they alone resisted, with unwavering courage, the fierce onslaughts of the French, though with heavy losses both in men and officers. After the terrible struggle at Flavigny, the Germans by evening were in possession of the battle line from Mars la Tour, Bionville, Rezonville,

to Gravelotte, against the constantly increasing forces of the French army. The struggle was carried on with marvellous bravery on both sides; when the French perceived that the aim of the Prussians was to drive them from the fortifications, they strove with the courage of despair to break through the



PRUSSIAN GENERAL AND STAFF.

enemy's ranks, when no one showed greater personal courage than Bazaine himself. The victory, however, remained with the Germans; and the day of Mars la Tour proved a day of honour to the gallant leader, Prince Friedrich Karl, and a day of imperishable renown for the third army corps.

GRAVELOTTE.



OF the battle of Gravelotte, in which King William himself took the chief command, a Prussian general gives the following account :—" For four hours the two armies stood face to face, without any special result being arrived at. The French held their ground and died, the Prussians dashed forwards and died, both by hundreds, almost by thousands. Only late on in the evening was the bulwark of the right wing of the French broken through by the united attack of the Guard corps and the 12th army corps. Over the blood-stained field, over corpses, and wounded comrades, the Guards dashed wildly forwards under the thick storm of cannon, animated by the desire of quickly reaching the enemy, and either conquering or dying." Victory, which at five o'clock in the afternoon was still uncertain, was at last decided in favour of the Germans. The statement made by Count Palikao in the Chamber of Deputies, that three of the enemy's divisions had been driven by Bazaine into the quarries at Jaumont, was one of the ingenious false accounts by which the French sought to deceive themselves and the world as to the true course of events. After nine o'clock the firing ceased, and Bazaine availed himself of the night to withdraw his army behind the fortifications of Metz. Upwards of forty thousand dead and wounded lying stretched on the vast battle-field, proved the unexampled bitterness of this nine hours' struggle, in which German courage gained only with difficulty a victory over French bravery. Among the fallen on the German side was the chivalrous prince Felix of Salm, the faithful comrade of the Emperor Maximilian in Mexico, who after his return had entered the Prussian Guard, and now in battle with Bazaine, who had also been involved in the fall of the unfortunate Emperor, died an honourable death on the field of battle.

The Siege of Metz.

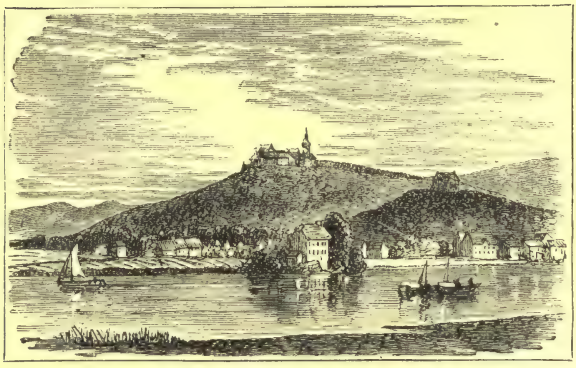
THE three days' fighting before Metz had driven Bazaine behind the works of fortification, where it was now the aim of the Germans to detain him. Apart from the military engagements in the field, a siege had



ASCHAFFENBURG.

now to be prosecuted, in which besides the dangers of the conflict, unfavourable autumn weather, sickness and pestilence constituted a formidable alliance, to render the undertaking both exhausting and hazardous. The besieging army, continually reinforced by advancing reserves, numbered at least 150,000 men, and surrounded the town on both sides the Moselle. Only by a close blockade would it be possible to conquer the town of Metz, defended as it was on all sides by invincible fortifications; the chief task of the besiegers consisted therefore in maintaining a close guard, while the French on the other hand exerted their utmost efforts to break through the closed line. On the 31st August, an attack was commenced by Bazaine, who succeeded in driving the Germans from their position near Noisseville and Montoy, but in a nocturnal sally under General Manteuffel the French were repulsed. On the 1st September, the French marched again into Metz. From this time forth it was regarded as a settled question in the German camp that the fate of the great army at Metz would be decided by the amount of provision stores, and already on the following day the French began slaughtering their horses for food.

THE CATASTROPHE OF SEDAN, AND THE OVERTHROW OF THE FRENCH EMPIRE.



ON the north of Chalons the Imperial Government had purchased a piece of land two square miles in extent, and had transformed it into a large camp, with barracks and places for exercise. To this spot were attracted many settlers of all kinds, especially dealers, wine and provision merchants, etc., so that in a short time the village of Mourmelon gained the appearance of a merchant town, where all the necessaries and pleasures of life could be easily procured. Between the encampment at Chalons and the girdle of fortifications at Metz stretches a hilly plateau, formed by arms of the Ardennes, and intersected by the Maas and Marne.

This territory formed the scene of the warlike events of the month of September, which began with the battles of Beaumont and Sedan, and came to a tedious conclusion with the siege of Paris. In the camp at Chalons, MacMahon, Duke of Magenta, held the chief command over an army of 125,000 men and 12,000 horsemen. Even after the Emperor had joined him from Verdun, the Marshal nominally held the command. Under him were Generals Ducrot, De Failly, Douay, and other leaders of the former Rhine Army, which now, in conjunction with the other troops, was designated "the Army of Paris." This army was a heterogeneous mass, unwilling even in the field to renounce the pleasures and enjoyments of the capital, and shunning the privations of warfare, and entirely wanting in order and discipline. On receiving the intelligence of the fighting at Metz, the Government despatched an order to Marshal MacMahon to advance with his army to Bazaine's relief.

But the Marshal cherished doubts as to the success of the undertaking, and inward conflict paralysed his movements and delayed the march, so that the vanguard of his army only arrived at Mouzon on the 28th of August. On leaving Chalons he had caused the camp and all the military stations to be burnt to the ground. As soon as MacMahon's march in a north-easterly direction was known, the Germans stopped the way to the west, and made preparations to prevent the enemy from making their way through and effecting a communication with Metz. By the last days of August the third army of the Crown Prince of Prussia had already reached the right bank of the Aisne, and came into conflict with the enemy, while the fourth division, after the battle of Nonart, obtained possession of the Maas line from Dun and Stenay.

The King himself was with the general staff,—first at Clermont and then at Varennes,—while the Emperor and MacMahon took up their quarters at Mouzon. Here the intelligence reached them that the corps of General de Failly had been attacked by the Germans near Beaumont, and had been put to flight with great loss in men and ammunition; consequently they

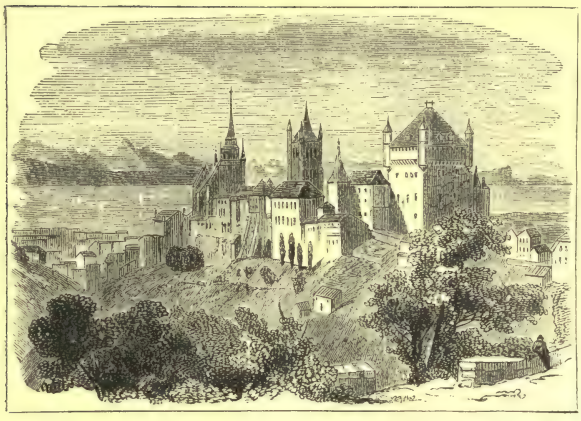
continued their hasty march towards Carignan and Sedan, their aim being less the investment of the latter place, than to effect a retreat by a victorious battle, or to gain the Belgian frontier and obtain support and protection. But the rapid movements of the Germans prevented the accomplishment of these plans. The third division, provided with splendid ammunition, reached



PRINCE FRIEDRICH KARL OF PRUSSIA.

the left bank of the stream, and though an attempt made by the Bavarians to cross the Maas was at first repulsed, the passage was afterwards accomplished in the night, while the eleventh North German corps crossed near Doncherry, and the army of the Crown Prince of Saxony endeavoured to capture the heights to the east and north of the town. The Crown Prince of Prussia was stationed with his staff on a mountain peak near Chateau Doncherry, and the King with the general staff on the imposing eminence of Frenois.

Events at Sedan.



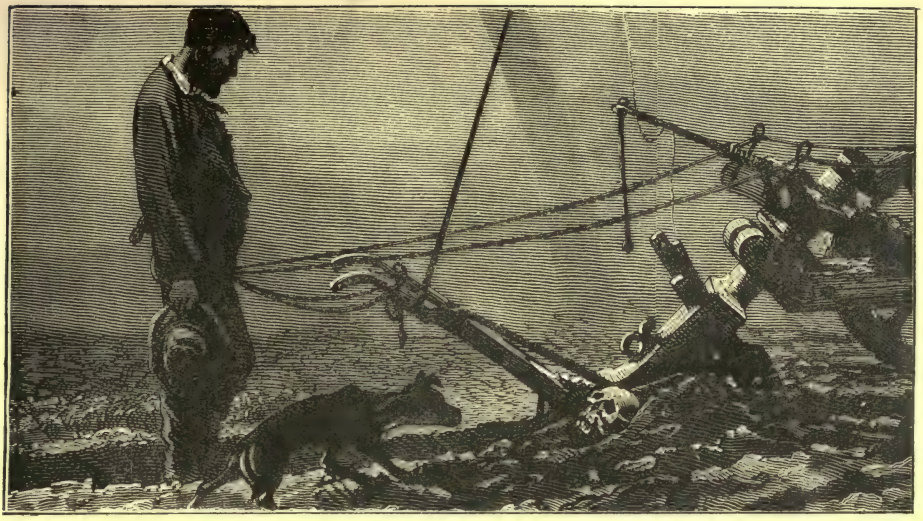
SOON afterwards the decisive battle of Sedan was fought, on the 1st of September. The Bavarians, under General von der Tann, succeeded, after a fierce struggle, in possessing themselves of the village of Bazeille, which was almost burned to the ground, when Marshal MacMahon was so seriously wounded that he was obliged to surrender the chief command, first to Ducrot, and then to General Wimpffen, a man of recognised bravery and cold calculation.

Fortune soon showed itself in favour of the Germans. To the north-west of the town, the North German troops invested the exits from St. Meuges and Fleigneux, and directed a fearful fire of artillery against the French forces, which, before noon, were so hemmed in that only two insufficient outlets to the south and north remained open. But General Wimpffen hesitated to seize either of these routes, and the open way to Illy was soon closed by the Prussian Guard corps, and a murderous fire was now directed from all sides upon the French, so that after a last energetic struggle at Floing all attempts to force a passage were surrendered, and in the afternoon they beat a retreat towards Sedan. In this small town the whole army of MacMahon was collected by evening, and there prevailed in the streets and houses an unprecedented disorder and confusion, which was still further increased when the German troops from the surrounding heights began to shoot down upon the fortress, and the town took fire in several places. That an end might be put to the prevailing misery, Napoleon commanded General Wimpffen to capitulate. The flag of truce already waved on the gates of Sedan when Colonel Bronsart appeared, and in the name of the King of Prussia demanded the surrender of the army and fortress. He soon returned to headquarters, accompanied by the French General Reille, who presented to the King a written message from Napoleon: "As I may not die in the midst of my army, I lay my sword in the hands of your majesty." King William accepted it with an expression of sympathy at the hard fate of the Emperor and of the French army which had fought so bravely under his own eyes. The conclusion of the treaty of capitulation was placed in the hands of Wimpffen, who, accompanied by General Castelnau, set out for Doncherry to negotiate with Moltke and Bismarck. No attempts, however, availed to move Moltke from his stipulation for the surrender of the whole army at discretion; he granted a short respite, but if this expired without surrender, the bombardment of the town was to begin anew.

At six o'clock in the morning the capitulation was signed, and was ratified by the King at his headquarters at Vendresse (2nd September). Thus the world beheld the incredible spectacle of an army of 83,000 men surrendering themselves and their weapons to the victor, and being carried off as prisoners

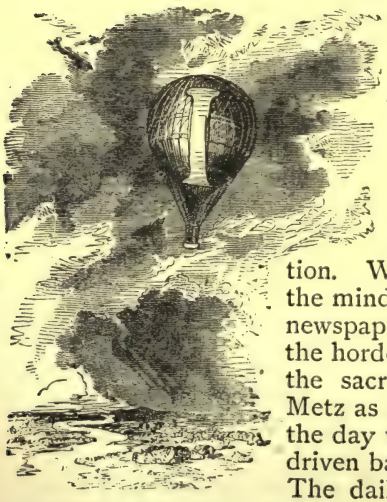
of war to Germany. Only the officers who gave their written word of honour to take no further part in the present war with Germany were permitted to retain their arms and personal property. Probably the assurance of Napoleon, that he had sought death on the battle-field but had not found it, was literally true ; at any rate, the fate of the unhappy man, bowed down as he was both by physical and mental suffering, was so solemn and tragic, that there was no room for hypocrisy, and that he had exposed himself to personal danger was admitted on all sides. Only subsequently was the remark imputed to him, "Death on the battle-field is beautiful—in poetry." Accompanied by Count Bismarck, he stopped at a small and mean-looking labourer's inn on the road to Doncherry, where, sitting down on a stone seat before the door, with the German statesman, he declared that he had not desired the war, but had been driven to it through the force of public opinion ; and afterwards the two proceeded to the little castle of Bellevue, near Frenois, to join King William and the Crown Prince. A telegram to Queen Augusta thus describes the interview : "What an impressive moment was the meeting with Napoleon ! He was cast down, but dignified in his bearing. I have granted him Wilhelmshöhe, near Cassel, as his residence. Our meeting took place in a little castle before the western glacis of Sedan."





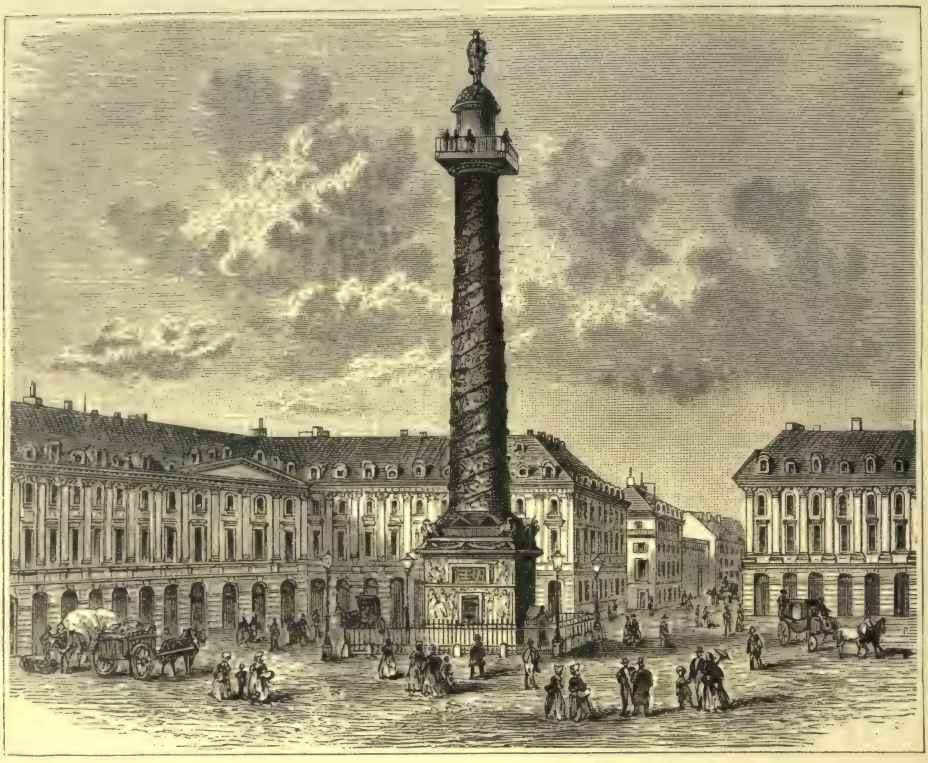
PARIS IN 1870; FALL OF THE EMPIRE.

EXCITEMENT IN PARIS.—THE EMPIRE DECLARED ABOLISHED.—THE NEW REPUBLICAN GOVERNMENT.—GAMBETTA, GENERAL TROCHU, ETC.—ESCAPE OF THE EMPRESS AND THE PRINCE IMPERIAL TO ENGLAND.—THE THIRD REPUBLIC AND THE NEUTRALS.—THE SIEGE OF PARIS.—HEROIC RESISTANCE OF THE CAPITAL.—SUFFERINGS OF THE BESIEGED.—INTERVENTION OF THE POWERS REFUSED BY BISMARCK.—WARLIKE OPERATIONS BEFORE STRASBURG.—BRAVE DEFENCE OF GENERAL UHRICH.—THE FALL OF METZ.—VERSAILLES.—PARIS CLOSELY ENVIRONED.—GAMBETTA AT TOURS.—TROCHU AND JULES FAVRE.—GOVERNMENT IN THE PROVINCES.



AFFAIRS IN THE CAPITAL.

IT was the policy of the ruling powers in Paris, while the disasters related in the last chapter were happening to the armies of France in the field, to conceal the true state of affairs as far as possible from the public, by means of garbled reports and prevarication. While the Government endeavoured to pacify the minds of the deputies by tranquillizing news, the newspapers gave vent to frenzied exasperation against the hordes of barbarians who dared to contaminate the sacred soil of France, described the battle of Metz as a victory for French arms, and declared that the day was at hand when the "invasion" should be driven back, and the enemy pursued across the Rhine. The daily press now teemed with denunciations to-



THE VENDÔME COLUMN, PARIS.

wards the German nation; and envy, terror, and suspicion combined to excite the passions of the angry populace. To what a terrible height this violent temper rose was shown in the shocking crime of a few mad peasants at Beaussac, in the department of Gironde, who cruelly tortured a landed proprietor, who was suspected of sympathy with the enemy, and then burned him to death. Though throughout the month of August the whole nation, and particularly the capital, was in a feverish state of excitement, this irritated state of feeling reached its highest point when the intelligence of the catastrophe of Sedan disclosed the whole system of falsehood, concealment, and misrepresentation which had hitherto abused the public mind. Instead of the hoped-for triumph the victorious enemy might now daily be expected before the walls of Paris. A revolutionary spirit took possession of the people. Even before the Republican deputy Jules Favre could bring forward the motion that the Emperor and his dynasty should be declared to have forfeited all their rights, and that a Provisional Government should be elected from the Assembly, the excited multitude thronged the streets and squares, crying, "Deposition! Republic!" surrounded first of all the residence of General Trochu, and when the latter directed them to the Legislative Chamber, marched in increasing numbers to the Palais Bourbon, uttering wild cries, and regardless of the interposition of the police.

On the 4th of September the Assembly met for the last time; a stormy sitting ended with the solemn deposition of Louis Napoleon and his family

for all time, pronounced by two prominent members of the Left, Jules Favre and Gambetta. Accompanied by their followers, the two deputies then made their way to the senate-house, where in the midst of a mighty throng, composed principally of the lower classes, the Republic was proclaimed, and a Provisional Government established for the national defence. At the head was placed General Trochu, and under him were: Favre, Minister for Foreign affairs ; Gambetta, for the Interior ; Leflô, Crémieux, Jules Simon, Fourichon, Darian, Magnin, and Picard. Beside these ministers stood Etienne Arago, mayor of Paris, with his assistants Floquet and Brisson; and an extended Commission, in which Rochefort, who had been liberated from prison, also had his place, was formed to undertake the necessary preparations for the national defence. The Legislative Chamber was dissolved, the Palais de Bourbon was closed, and the Empress Eugénie quitted the Tuileries; and, accompanied by a few attendants, escaped to Belgium, whence she finally sought an asylum in England, and was soon followed by her son. Prince Louis Napoleon had already set out for Italy, while his wife, Clotilde, sought a refuge with her children at the castle Prangins, in Switzerland. The swarm of courtiers, who but a short time before had believed themselves to be in full enjoyment of prosperity and honour, were scattered to the winds, and only thought of their own safety. A few faithful followers set out for Chiselhurst, in Kent, where the Empress and the Prince Imperial had taken up their abode; others went to Cassel, in the neighbourhood of which place, at the castle of Wilhelmshöhe, the Emperor lingered through the days of his imprisonment, in the same beautiful palace and park where once his uncle Jérome Bonaparte had passed six years of enjoyment and pleasure.

In Paris it proved no easy matter to constitute a Government so formless and so wanting in all legal basis as the Government of the National Defence, justly termed "the Government of lawyers," most of the members, and even the officials connected with it, belonging to that class. The irreconcilable opponents of an Imperialism which had been established by a *coup d'état*, they had, with the aid of the populace, seized the reins of government by a similar *coup d'état*, had arbitrarily dissolved the National Assembly, and had proclaimed a Republican Constitution. Honourable, however, as were many of the members, no internal harmony prevailed among them. Trochu alone was invested with legal authority; and he justified by his judgment and energy the confidence reposed in him. The other members of the Government of defence had only in common with each other a hatred of Cæsarian despotism, and a proclivity towards Republicanism; among them Jules Favre and Gambetta—the former on account of his honourable Republican character, and the latter on account of his Southern nobility—were the most remarkable members.

THE THIRD REPUBLIC AND THE NEUTRALS.



WHILE the first Republic had proclaimed to the world "war against palaces, and peace with cottages," while the second Republic raised aloft the socialistic banner proclaiming that "property is theft," so the third began its public career by enunciating a phrase, which was intended to impress foreign countries, and to awaken a sense of invincible power and determination. The programme was laid down by Jules Favre in these words: "Not a foot's breadth of our country nor a stone of our fortresses shall be surrendered;" and this principle found upholders and admirers both abroad and among theoretical Republicans, although completely ignored by the belligerent power.

The first step towards removing the scene of action to Paris was taken by General Vinoy, who, failing to effect a coalition with MacMahon, set out on the return journey to Paris, where his troops formed the flower of the French army of defence. All available means for gathering together extensive reinforcements were now put in force; every person capable of bearing arms was summoned for service, and naval troops, excise officials, officers of woods and forests, firemen, policemen, and pensioned soldiers were all enrolled in the national army, which soon numbered 400,000 men. There was indeed need to prepare for a mighty struggle, for the two armies which had fought at Sedan under the Crown Princes of Saxony and Prussia were already marching towards the capital. The intense exasperation and bitterness which prevailed among the French, inflamed as they were by revolutionary excitement and by the violent language of the press, was proved by the catastrophe at Laon (9th September). After the town and citadel had been handed over by General Theremin d'Hame by treaty to Colonel von Alvensleben, the powder magazine exploded. Upwards of a hundred German soldiers and officers, and a still larger number of French Guards, were killed or wounded; while Theremin himself, who was at first imprisoned as the suspected author of the crime, died some time afterwards from the effects of the injuries he had received. The excitement of the French people and of the capital reached



MARSHAL MACMAHON.

its highest point when the German troops, after a few slight encounters, gradually accomplished the surrounding of Paris, the army of the Crown Prince of Saxony taking up its position on the right bank of the Seine, and the third division, under the Crown Prince of Prussia, being stationed on the left bank, while at the peninsula of Argenteuil both armies could join. The German army had hitherto experienced such remarkable and astounding success, that a similarly speedy triumph was anticipated in the great war of sieges which was being carried on simultaneously at Metz, Strasburg, and Paris, although it was well known that Paris, under Louis Philippe and under the Second Empire, had been transformed into a fortified city of the first rank, and was securely encircled by armed bastions and detached forts. The Germans relied principally on the irresistible power of hunger, and were therefore above all solicitous to isolate Paris, to cut off every access, and prevent any sally from taking place. Enclosed within their own limits, and severed from all communication with the outer world, it was anticipated that the Parisians would infallibly be reduced to submission and capitulation.

THE SIEGE.



THUS began at three main points and several minor ones a military siege in which difficulties, dangers, and hardships surpassed even the winter campaign in the Crimea. Exposed at the fore-posts to the enemy's balls, chained to arduous labour in the trenches and redoubts, and suffering from the effects of bad weather, and insufficient food and clothing, the German soldiers were compelled to undergo unspeakable privations and sufferings before the fortifications; while many fell in the frequent skirmishes and sallies, many succumbed to typhus and epidemic disease, and many returned home mutilated, or broken in health. No less painful and distressing was the condition of the besieged. While the garrison soldiers on guard were constantly compelled to face death in nocturnal sallies, or led a pitiable existence in damp huts, having inevitable surrender constantly before, their eyes, and disarmament and imprisonment as the reward of all their struggles and exertions, the citizens in the town, the women and children were in constant danger of being shivered to atoms by the fearful shells, or of being buried under falling walls and roofs; and the poorer part of the population saw with dismay the gradual diminution of the necessaries of life, and were often compelled to pacify their hunger with the flesh of horses, and disgusting and unwholesome food. Such a vast sea of human misery and lamentation, suffering, and death was seldom before witnessed by mankind.

The Republican Government possessed only a usurped power, and none but a freely elected National Assembly could decide as to the fate of the French nation. This Assembly was therefore to be summoned on the 16th October. Three members of the Government—Crémieux, Fourichon, and Glais-Vizoin—were despatched before the entire blockade of the town had been effected, to Tours, to maintain communication with the provinces. An attempt was also made at the same time to induce the Great Powers who had not taken part in the war to organise an intervention, as hitherto only America, Switzerland, and Spain had sent official recognition. For this important and delicate mission the old statesman and historian Thiers was selected, who, in spite of his three-and-seventy years, immediately set out on the journey to London, St. Petersburg, Vienna, and Florence. Count Bismarck, however, in the name of Prussia, refused any intervention in internal affairs. In two despatches to the ambassadors of foreign courts, the Chancellor declared that the war, begun by the Emperor Napoleon, had been approved by the representatives of the nation, and that thus all France was answerable for the result. Germany was obliged, therefore, to demand guarantees which should secure her in future against attack, or, at any rate, render attack more difficult. Thus a cession of territory on the part of France was laid down as the basis of a treaty of peace. The neutral Powers also were led to the belief that if they fostered in the French any hope of

diplomatic or material intervention, peace would only be delayed in consequence. The mission of Thiers, therefore, bore no useful fruit to the French Republic. The direct negotiation also, into which Jules Favre had entered



PLAN OF THE FORTIFICATIONS AND ENVIRONS OF PARIS.

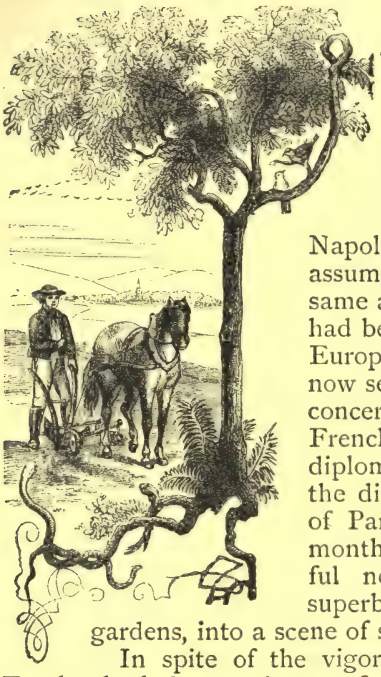
with Bismarck, at the head-quarters at Ferrières, proved of no avail, and the delegation of Tours declared in a proclamation to the French people that the war must be carried on, because Prussia wished to reduce France to a Power of lower rank by demanding the cession of Alsace and Lorraine (24th

Sept.). It was in vain that Count Bismarck controverted the assertion that France, by the loss of Alsace and Lorraine, would be degraded to the rank of a secondary Power. War to the knife was the watchword of the day in Republican Paris; and all united with one accord to rouse the people to one last patriotic effort in defence of their capital. All fugitives and exiles under the Empire now returned. Among them the Republicans of the year 1849, Ledru-Rollin, Louis Blanc, Quinet, Victor Hugo, etc., as well as the Orleanists, showed themselves once more, and bore themselves with proud hopes. Divergent views and aims were, however, cast aside and forgotten in a glowing zeal for France and hatred of the foreign invader. All united together, and even vied with each other, in this one supreme object. Hatred of the Germans was regarded as a national duty, a patriotic feeling.

War Operations before Strasburg.

ON the same 24th September on which the proclamation from Tours pronounced the conditions of the truce as unacceptable, one of the fortresses had already fallen into the enemy's hands. The ancient Lorraine town of Toul, which had been long besieged by the troops of the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg, found itself at last compelled to capitulate, after a fearful bombardment (23rd Sept.); and a few days afterwards Strasburg, the surrender of which the French statesmen represented as an act of the greatest dishonour, also fell into the hands of the Germans. The fate of the hardly pressed town met everywhere with the greatest sympathy. In Switzerland a committee of help was established, which despatched a deputation to offer a retreat for the sick, weak, and needy, whose release could be fairly demanded; and with the consent of the commanders on both sides, at least eight hundred unarmed inhabitants—women, children, and old men—made a safe escape from the beleaguered city. It was the first day of gladness throughout the long tragedy. At the same time the first reliable news arrived of events in Paris—the deposition of the Emperor, the overthrow of the Regency, and the establishment of the Republic. A new ray of hope now penetrated the downcast city. The Republican Government had inscribed on its banners the expulsion of the enemy from French soil as the first and highest aim. Strasburg could not refuse co-operation, and therefore through its newly elected mayor, Dr. Küss, after an agreement with Commander Uhrich, declared its assent to the programme of "protecting the dignity of the national banner." Fresh enthusiasm was now instilled into the people, and a determination to prolong their efforts of defence by every means in their power. Nevertheless, the fall of Strasburg was only a question of a few days. Although the besieged contested every inch of foothold with the greatest bravery, and with a complete contempt for death, the ceaseless storm of artillery produced such fearful havoc that a combined attack would necessarily have resulted in a storming of the fortress. In order to spare the town this hard fate, with the inevitable outrages that would follow, Commander Uhrich at last ordered the white flag to be unfurled (27th Sept.). The firing now ceased, and the capitulation was brought about without difficulty on the basis of the conditions laid down in the treaty of Sedan, and on the following day the garrison marched out, and the citadel was surrendered.

Progress of the War and the Fall of Metz.



VERSAILLES. — From Rothschild's palace of Ferrières, in whose daintily decorated rooms and magnificent park the rich possessor had so often entertained with every conceivable luxury the Imperial Court and the elegant world of Paris, King William removed his head-quarters to Versailles (5th Oct.). Here also, as in the installation of Napoleon at Wilhelmshöhe, the Nemesis of history assumed the mask of irony and humour. In the same apartments whence, in the days of Louis XIV., had been issued dictatorial edicts and laws, to which Europe bowed in all humility, the aged hero-king now set up his homely camp-bed, the general staff concerted their plans for the subjugation of the French Republic, and Count Bismarck disclosed his diplomatic schemes. From these head-quarters were the directions despatched for the memorable siege of Paris, which, protracted from week to week and month to month, gradually transformed the beautiful neighbourhood, with its prosperous villages, superb country houses, and enchanting parks and gardens, into a scene of sadness and desolation.

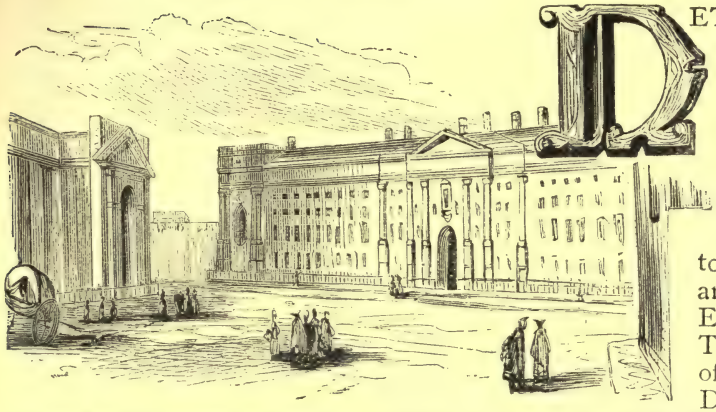
In spite of the vigorous efforts made by the commander-in-chief Trochu, both by continuous firing from the forts and by repeated sallies, to prevent Paris from being surrounded, and to force a way through the trenches, his enterprises were rendered fruitless by the watchfulness and strength of the Germans. The blockade was completely accomplished, Paris was surrounded and cut off from the outer world—even the underground telegraphs, through which communication was for a time secretly maintained with the provinces, were by degrees discovered and destroyed. But to the great astonishment of Europe, which looked on with keenly pitched excitement at the mighty struggle, the siege continued from week to week and from month to month, without any special progress being observable from without or any lessening of resistance from within. On account of the extension of the forts, the Germans were compelled to remain at such a distance that a bombardment of the town at first appeared impossible ; a storming of the outer works would, moreover, be attended with such sacrifices, that the humane temper of the king revolted from such a proceeding. The guns of greater force and carrying power which were needed from Germany, could only be procured after long delay on account of the broken lines of railway. Probably also there was some hesitation on the German side to expose the beautiful city, regarded by so many as the "metropolis of civilization," to the risk of a bombardment, in which all works of art, science, or a historical past would meet with certain destruction. Nevertheless, the declamations of the French at the Vandalism of the northern barbarians met with assent and sympathy from most of the foreign Powers.

It was also probably the opinion at Versailles that the National Assembly, seeing the disastrous condition into which France would be plunged by a continuation of the war, would be obliged to summon a Representative Assembly, with which measures of peace might be negotiated, or that want of provisions would bring about a capitulation.



ALSATIAN PEASANTS FLYING TO STRASBURG.

GAMBETTA AT TOURS.



DETERMINATION and courage falsified the calculations at Versailles. The Republic offered a far more energetic and determined opposition to the Prussian arms than the Empire had done. The Government of the National Defence still declaimed with stern reiteration: "Not a foot's breadth of our country; not a stone of our fortresses!" and positively rejected all proposals of treaty based on territorial concessions. Faith in the invincibility of the Republic was rooted as an indisputable dogma in the hearts of all the French people. The victories and the commanding position of France from 1792 to 1799 was regarded as so entirely the necessary result of the Revolution, that a conviction prevailed that the formation of a Republic, with a national army for its defence, would have an especial effect on the rest of Europe. Therefore, instead of summoning a constituent Assembly, which, in the opinion of Prussia and the other foreign Powers, would alone be capable of offering security for a lasting peace, it was decided to continue the revolutionary movements, and to follow the same course which, in the years 1792 and 1793, had saved France from the coalition of the European Powers—a revolutionary dictatorship such as had once been exercised by the Convention and the members of the Committee of Public Safety, must again be revived, and a youthful and hot-blooded leader was alone needed to stir up popular feeling and set it in motion. To fill such a part no one was better adapted than the advocate Gambetta, who emulated the career of a Robespierre, a St. Just, and a Camille Desmoulins, and whose soul glowed with a passionate ardour of patriotism. In order to create for himself a free sphere of action, and to initiate some vigorous measure in place of the well-rounded phrases and eloquent proclamations of his colleagues Trochu and Jules Favre, he quitted the capital in an air-balloon and entered into communication with the Government delegation at Tours, which through him soon obtained a fresh impetus. His next most important task was the liberation of the capital from the besieging German army, and the expulsion of the enemy from the "sacred" soil of France. For this purpose he summoned, with the authority of a minister of war, all persons capable of bearing arms up to forty years of age to take active service, and despatched them into the field; he imposed war-taxes, and terrified the tardy and refractory with threats of punishment. Every force was put in motion; all France was transformed into a great camp. A popular war was now to take the place of a soldiers' war, and what the soldiers had failed to effect must be accomplished by the people; France must be saved, and the world freed from despotism. To promote this object, the whole of France, with the exception of Paris, was divided into four general



governments, the head-quarters of the different governors being Lille, Le Mans, Bourges, and Besançon. Two armies, from the Loire and from the Somme, were to march simultaneously towards Paris, and, aided by the sallies of Trochu and his troops, were to drive the enemy from the country. Energetic attacks were now attempted from time to time, in the hope that when the armies of relief arrived from the provinces, it might be possible to effect a coalition ; but all these efforts were constantly repulsed after a hot struggle by the besieging German troops. At the same time, during the month of October the territory between the Oise and the Lower Seine was scoured by reconnoitring troops, under Prince Albrecht, the south-east district was protected by a Würtemberg detachment through the successful battle near Nogent on the Seine, while a division of the third army advanced towards the south accompanied by two cavalry divisions. A more unfortunate circumstance, however, for the Parisians was the cutting off of all communication with the outer world, for the Germans had destroyed the telegraphs. But even this obstacle was overcome by the inventive genius of the French. By means of pigeon letter-carriers and air-balloons, they were always able to maintain a partial though one-sided and imperfect communication with the provinces, and the aerostatic art was developed and brought to perfection on this occasion in a manner which had never before been considered possible.

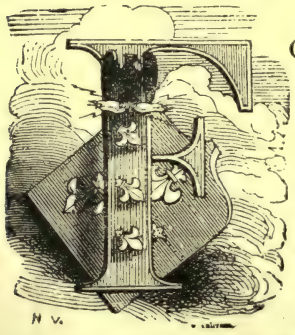


THE GREAT WAR.

(CONTINUED.)

MARSHAL BAZAINE AT METZ.—FALL OF THE CITY.—SURRENDER OF THREE MARSHALS AND 150,000 SOLDIERS.—HEAVY CENSURES ON MARSHAL BAZAINE.—REJOICINGS AT THE GERMAN HEAD-QUARTERS AT VERSAILLES.—NEGOTIATIONS FOR A TRUCE.—BELLEVILLE AND THE COMMUNISTS.—FAILURE OF THE NEGOTIATIONS OF THIERS.—INCREASED DISTRESS IN THE CAPITAL.—THE REVOLUTIONARY TERRORISM IN FRANCE AND THE WINTER CAMPAIGN.—GAMBETTA AND THE MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL DEFENCE. — STRUGGLE AROUND THE LOIRE AND BARTHE.—BEFORE ORLEANS.—THE ARMY OF THE LOIRE SCATTERED.—SUFFERINGS OF THE WAR.—AMIENS, BAPAUME, AND ST. QUENTIN.—TRIUMPH OF THE GERMAN ARMS.

THE SURRENDER OF METZ.—THE CAPITULATION OF METZ.



FOR the success of his plan, Gambetta counted on the co-operation of Bazaine and the combined forces at Metz. But before even the organization of the Loire army could be completed, the fate of the Lorraine fortress was sealed, and the capitulation of Metz, which had long been regarded as inevitable, took place. This event was a blow struck at Gambetta's schemes of action, and he and his colleagues proceeded to accuse the General of treachery. It is quite possible that the Marshal, as an old soldier and devoted adherent of Napoleon, was not much in accord with the Republican advocates' government at Paris and Tours,

and that feeling piqued and discouraged, he did not make his attempted sallies at the right time; but apart from this venture, he neglected nothing, either in marvellous patience or careful discipline of his troops, in his efforts to retain possession of the fortress as long as possible, and by occupying the



THE CHATEAU, WILHELMSHÖHE.

attention of a large part of the enemy's army, he rendered his distressed country a signal service. The sallies which he attempted on the 2nd and on the 7th October, probably in the hope of making his way through to neutral Luxemburg, proved unavailing, though on the latter occasion his troops

made desperate efforts to force a way through. Until late into the night raged the fearful conflict, the cannon and mitrailleuse filling the air with deafening clamour. But the German forces, of which Kummer's division formed the centre, withstood the attack like a wall of stone, and finally achieved the victory.

Equally unsuccessful were the diplomatic negotiations into which Bazaine shortly afterwards entered with the Prussian head-quarters at Versailles. His demand for a free withdrawal of his army, with the promise that he would not take further part in the war for three months, while Metz itself should continue its defence, was refused. Thus nothing remained to him, after his army had held out to the very brink of starvation, but to capitulate on the same conditions as the Imperial army at Sedan. The aged general Changarnier conducted the negotiations, which led to the surrender of the "virgin" town of Metz, with its fortifications, arms, and ammunition, and the entire army of three marshals—Bazaine, Canrobert, and Lebœuf,—over 6,000 officers, and more than 150,000 soldiers as prisoners of war (26th and 27th Oct.). With tears in his eyes, the old general, who had passed eighteen years in exile, made known to the expectant garrison the hard fate that awaited them. Marshal Bazaine was subsequently severely censured for not having attempted a desperate sally instead of consenting to this ignominious surrender; he was even accused of treason towards his country, and was ultimately placed on his trial. But men who were acquainted with the state of affairs proved that up to the last he fulfilled all the duties of a commander and a soldier with judgment and conscientiousness, that it would have been impossible to break through the iron ring which encircled the town more and more closely, and that the lives of many brave men would have been uselessly sacrificed; and the state of the surrendered town plainly showed that, had there been any further delay, hunger would have done its work, and hushed into a terrible silence all those voices which after the capitulation were raised in accusation against the Marshal.

King William celebrated the brilliant victory of the German arms by appointing the Crown Prince and Prince Friedrich Karl Field-marshals, and by the elevation of Moltke to the rank of Count.

Versailles and Paris.—Negotiations for a Truce.

THE whole of France, and especially the capital, was in a state of intense excitement, when the intelligence of the capitulation of Metz added a fresh spark to the inflammable state of public feeling. While a large army of mobilized National Guards, free-shooters, etc., was being organized by Gambetta's efforts on the Loire, and reinforced with hordes of Bedouin horsemen from Africa (Gums), fresh negotiations for a truce were commenced by Thiers with Versailles, and in beleaguered Paris the red Republic raised the banner of insurrection, and efforts were made to drive the Government of the National Defence from power. While Trochu, Jules Favre, and Picard took the old Gironde as their model, and Gambetta imitated the rôle of the Committee of Public Welfare, an extreme party, with old Socialists at their head, like Flourens, the restless but heavily chastised Blanqui, Rochefort, Ledru-Rollin, Felix Pyat, etc., endeavoured, with the help of the artisan population of Belleville, to revive the

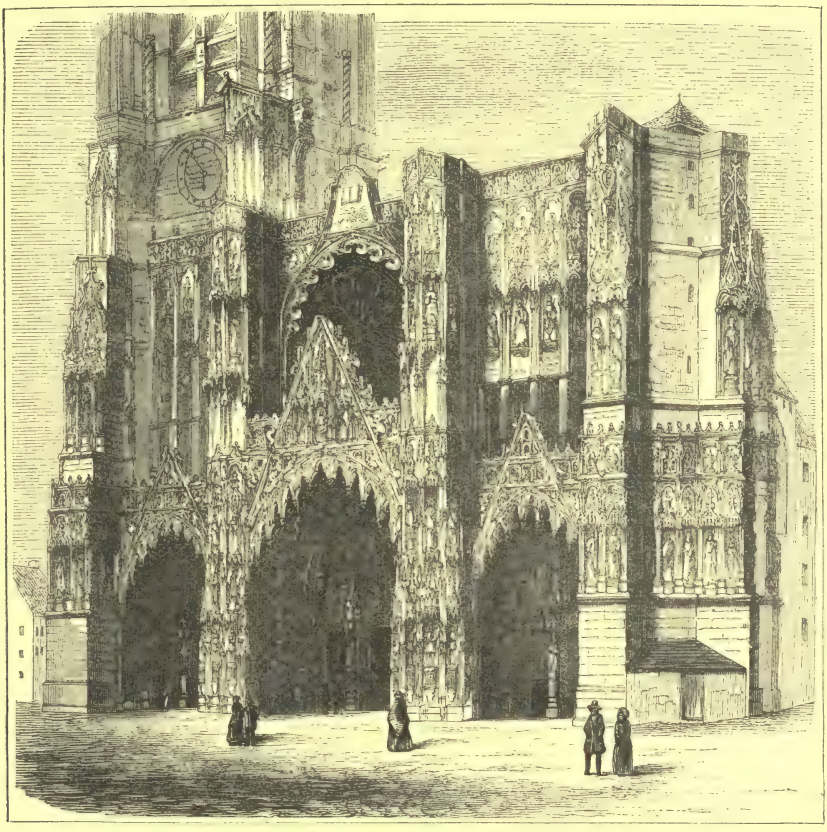
ancient Commune, the government of the municipality of Paris of 1793, to assert the Socialistic principles of 1848, and to appeal to the terrorism of the masses in the spirit of the Montagnards of a former period. At the head of



FIRING SALVOES AT BERLIN.

an armed crowd the insurgent leaders marched to the senate-house, and threateningly demanded the establishment of a freely elected municipal council, which, with the Government, should wield comprehensive power; and then proceeded to imprison Trochu, Jules Favre, and the other members of

the National Defence. It was only owing to the prompt resolution of Picard, who escaped by a back entrance and fetched a division of the Paris National Guard to the senate-house, that the rebellion was on this occasion repressed, and the Provisional Government reinstated. It was a first attempt to terrorize by the reign of a "Commune" over the whole of France, to prevent the summons of a Constituent Assembly, and to raise the red banner as a universal sign and watchword. Gambetta now proved, by his appeal for aid to Garibaldi, who



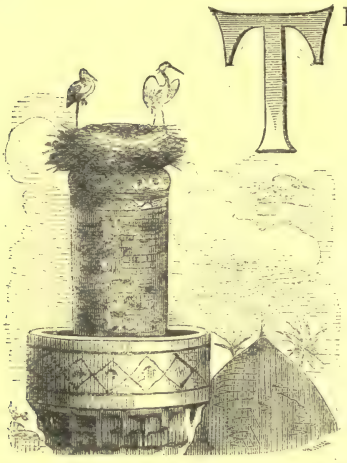
CATHEDRAL AT TROYES.

quitted his island to come to the aid of the French Republic, that he was willing to avail himself of every revolutionary force, and to call into action every sentiment of anger, race-hatred, and fanaticism, as instruments by which to gain his ends. It was evident also by his dissolution of the general councils that he wished to abolish the existing government in the departments, and pave the way for a democratic central power. Though the red spectre had on this occasion been driven out of the field by the force of outward circumstances, it still lurked in gloomy obscurity, awaiting a more favourable opportunity for action. The Provisional Government felt itself so strengthened by this result, that it also showed no signs of readiness to relinquish its power to a chamber of national representatives. The members made peace with their opponents, proclaimed oblivion for what had passed,

broke off the negotiations for a truce begun by Thiers, and demanded a vote of confidence. The indomitable spirit shown by the French people did not, on the other hand, inspire the Germans with a very lenient or conciliatory temper. Bismarck declared in a despatch the reasons why the negotiations had failed: "The incredible demand that we should surrender the fruits of all our efforts during the last two months, and should go back to the conditions which existed at the beginning of the blockade of Paris, only affords fresh proof that in Paris pretexts are sought for refusing the nation the right of election." Thiers mournfully declared the failure of his undertaking, but in Paris the popular voting resulted in a tenfold majority in favour of the Government and the policy of postponement.

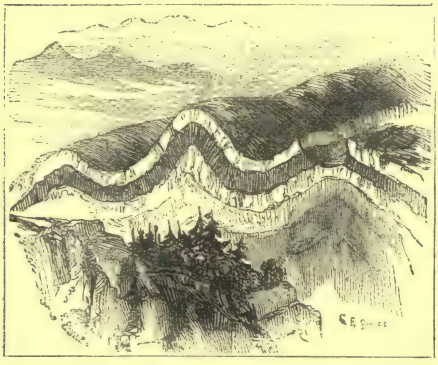
After the breaking off of the negotiations, the world anticipated some energetic action towards the besieged city. The efforts of the enemy were, however, more and more directed to drawing the iron girdle still tighter, enclosing the giant city more and more closely, and cutting off every means of communication, so that at last a surrender might be brought about by the stern necessity of starvation. That this object would not be accomplished as speedily as at Metz, that the city of pleasure, enjoyment, and luxury would withstand a siege of four months, had never been contemplated for a moment. It is true that, as time went on, all fresh meat disappeared from the market, with the exception of horse-flesh; that white bread, on which Parisians place such value, was replaced by a baked compound of meal and bran; that the stores of dried and salted food began to decline, until at last rats, dogs, cats, and even the animals from the zoological gardens, were prepared for consumption at restaurants. Yet, to the amazement of the world, all these miseries, hardships, and sufferings were courageously borne, nocturnal watch was kept, sallies were undertaken, and cold, hunger, and wretchedness of all kinds were endured with an indomitable steadfastness and heroism. The courage of the besieged Parisians was also animated by the hope that the military forces in the provinces would hasten to the aid of the hard-pressed capital, and that therefore an energetic resistance would afford the rest of France sufficient time for rallying all its forces, and at the same time exhibit an elevating example. In the carrying out of this plan, neither Trochu nor Gambetta was wanting in the requisite energy and circumspection. The former organized sallies from time to time, in order to reconnoitre and discover whether the army of relief was on its way from the provinces; the latter exerted all his powers to bring the Loire army up to the Seine. But both erred in undervaluing the German war forces; they did not believe that the hostile army would be able to keep Paris in a state of blockade, and at the same time engage the armies on the south and north, east and west. They had no conception of the hidden, inexhaustible strength of the Prussian army organization—of a nation in arms which could send forth constant reinforcements of battalion and recruits, and fresh bodies of disciplined troops to fill the gaps left in the ranks by the wounded and fallen. There could be no doubt as to the termination of this terrible war, or the final victory of German energy and discipline.

The Revolutionary Terrorism in France, and the Winter Campaign.—War Operations in the North of France.

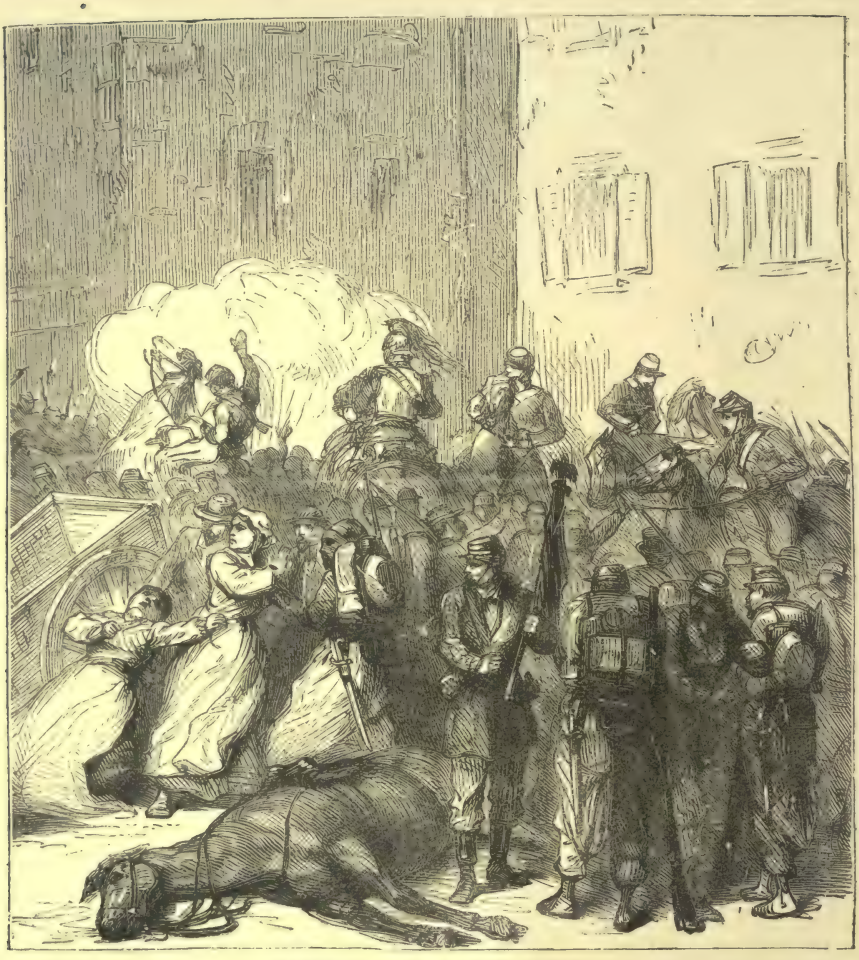


THROUGHOUT the last months of the eventful year 1870, the northern part of France, from the Jura to the Channel, from the Belgian frontier to the Loire, presented the aspect of a wide battle-field. Of the troops that had been set free by the capitulation of Metz, a part remained behind in garrison, another division marched northwards in order to invest the provinces of Picardy and Normandy, to restore communication with the sea, and to bar the road to Paris. A third division joined the second army, whose commander-in-chief, Prince Friedrich Karl, set up his head-quarters at Troyes. Different detachments were despatched against the northern fortresses, and by degrees Soissons (16th Oct.), Verdun (8th Nov.), Thionville (24th Nov.), Ham, where Napoleon had once been a prisoner (15th Dec.), Pfalzburg (12th Dec.), and Montmedy (14th Dec.), all fell into the hands of the Prussians, thus opening to them a free road for the supplies of provisions. The garrison troops were all carried off as prisoners to Germany; the towns—most of them in a miserable condition—fell into the enemy's hands; many houses were mere heaps of ruins and ashes, and the larger part of the inhabitants were suffering severely from poverty, hunger, and disease.

The Struggle in the Vosges and the Jura.



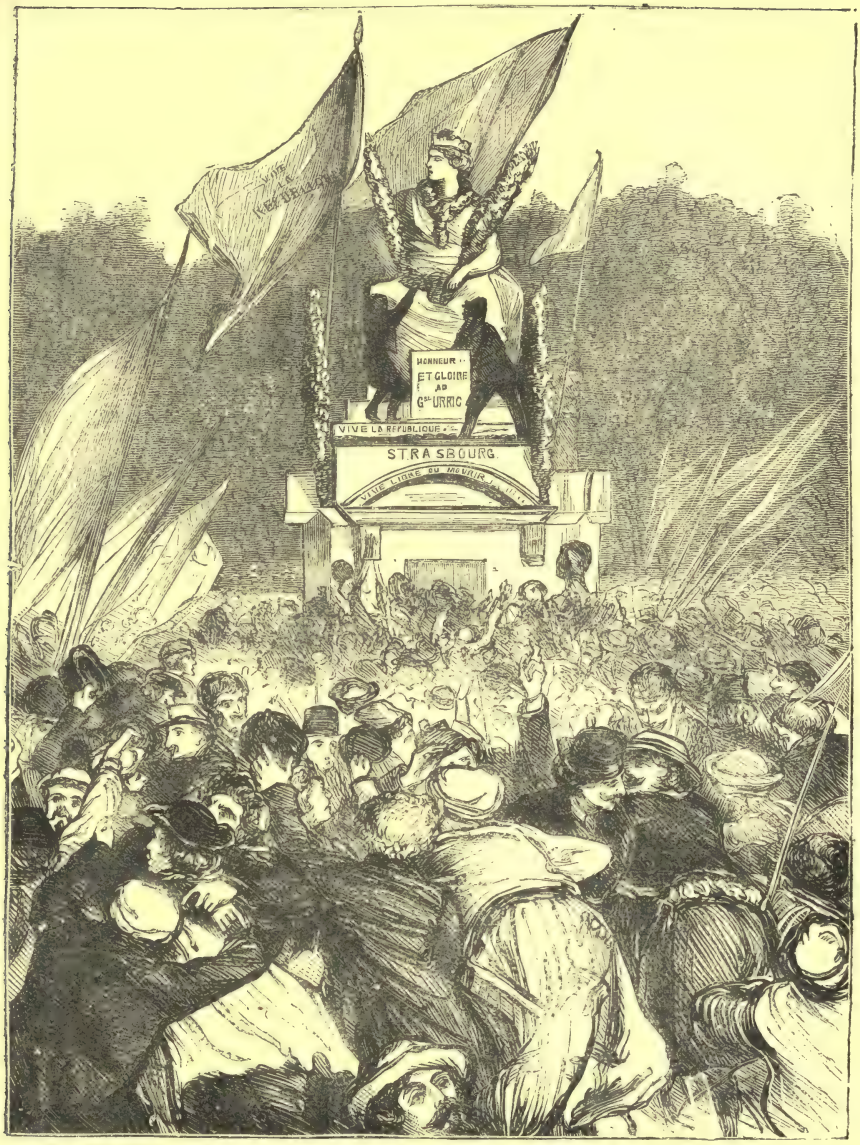
THE greatest obstacles were encountered by the 14th detachment, which was led forth by the brave general Von Werder from Strasburg, to subjugate the northern part of Alsace and to occupy the mountainous districts of the Vosges and the Jura. Not only were his troops insufficient to encounter the numbers of the enemy, but nowhere did irregular warfare develop itself to such an extent and in such a dangerous form as in these mountain districts, where the fortress of Langres afforded a safe retreat to lurking enemies. Although the Baden troops under General von Degenfeld repulsed the preponderating numbers of the French with great bravery at St. Dié, Etival, and Wompatelize (6th to 12th Oct.)—although the Prussian general Von Schmerling compelled the fortress of Schlettstadt to surrender, and obtained possession of Neubreisach (11th Nov.),—the army from the east, which was first organized by General Cambriels in the Republican town of Lyons, which was not only reinforced by Garibaldi, but also by Italians, Spaniards, and Poles, under his sons Menotti and Ricciotti, and in which other democratic leaders, such as



STREET IN A BOMBARDED TOWN.

Cluseret of the North American war, Cremer, the Pole Bosak-Haucke, and others sought a field of action for their unquiet spirits and Republican doctrines, —this army in the east sent forth a succession of expeditions, and constantly despatched fresh bands of the hungry artizan population of the southern towns into the field. Lyons, with the camp at Satonay, and the neighbouring manufacturing town of St. Etienne, became a hotbed of Republican excitement, where the red banner was raised aloft, and a socialistic party, which seized the reins of government, established a despotism of terror and violence. Though many divergent elements helped to make up this army of the east, which bore within itself the germs of dissolution, yet all were unanimous in hatred of the Germans and the eager desire of driving the enemy back across the Rhine.

Thus, during the cold days of November and December, when General von Treskow began to besiege the important fortress of Belfort, there burst forth a war around Gray and Dijon, which, in its many hardships, dangers, and privations, has never been surpassed. For here it was not only a question for the Germans of contending with an enemy far superior in numbers,



THE STATUE OF THE CITY OF STRASBURG IN PARIS.

and of defending themselves from the continuous firing from every ambuscade, from houses, cellars, woods, and thickets, but the impoverished land yielded only a miserable produce, and the broken railways prevented any intercourse with home. By the end of October the troops commenced, amid continual skirmishes, to press on towards the Oignon, and then to Dijon, and after a hot struggle on the heights of St. Apollinaire, took possession of the ancient capital of the former dukedom of Burgundy (31st Oct.).

Gambetta and the Members of the National Defence.

THE whole of the Jura district, intersected by hilly roads as far as the plateau of Langres, where, in the days of Cæsar, the Romans and Gauls were wont to measure their strength with each other, formed during November and December the scene of action of numerous encounters which, in conjunction with sallies from the garrison at Belfort, inflicted severe injury on Werder's troops. Dijon had repeatedly to be evacuated; and the nocturnal attack at Chatillon (20th Nov.) by Garibaldians, when 120 Landwehrmen and Hussars perished miserably, and 70 horses were lost, afforded a striking proof of the dangers to which the German army was exposed in the hostile country, although the revolutionary excesses of the turbulent population of the south diverted to a certain extent the attention of the National Guard, who were compelled to turn their weapons against an internal enemy.

It is true that Gambetta and his colleagues succeeded in so far controlling the revolutionary movements of the Commune of Lyons and the League of the South, that the Communist and Federalist aspirations agreed to defer to the Government of Defence until the expulsion of the enemy should take place. In Lyons, however, public excitement still continued, and towards the end of the year rose to such a pitch, that Armand, the commander of the National Guard, was sentenced to death and shot by a band of social democrats. The author of the deed was, however, brought to justice, and the unfortunate family of the murdered man received compensation.

The Struggle around the Loire and Sarthe.—Before Orleans

BY means of the revolutionary dictatorship of Gambetta, the whole French nation was drawn into the struggle, and the annihilation of the enemy was in every way represented as a national duty. Thus the war assumed a more and more violent character. On the night of the 7th of October a detachment of Hussars was surprised at Ablis, a pleasant spot near the railway from Vendôme to Tours. The troops were scattered or cut to pieces, and only a few succeeded in escaping. The little town, whose inhabitants were accused of co-operating with the enemy, was set on fire, by way of punishment and example. The cavalry regiments which set out southwards in October to investigate the district between the Seine and the Loire, and to gather recruits, speedily encountered the French troops forming the vanguard of the Loire army, which was marching to the relief of Paris under General de la Motterouge. A Bavarian corps under General von der Tann was despatched by the Crown Prince of Prussia, and came up with the French near Artenay (10th Oct.), drove them, after a hotly contested battle, into the "forests of Orleans," and occupied the wealthy town on the Loire. Motterouge was, in consequence of this defeat, deprived of his command by Gambetta, and it was

conferred on Aurelles de Paladine. The new general rallied all his forces, with the intention of marching towards Paris. Von der Tann immediately evacuated Orleans, that he might not be cut off from the army before Paris.



DRIVING CATTLE FOR THE ARMY.

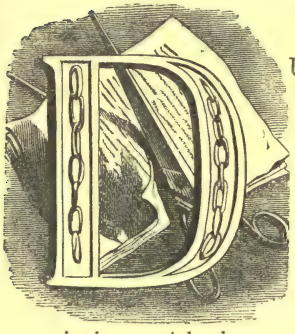
Although pursued by the enemy, he succeeded, after the bloody battle of Coulmiers (9th Nov.) against the three times more numerous forces of the French, in effecting a retreat upon Chartres, where he was joined by General Wittich. This result was represented by the French as a brilliant victory of the French arms; and even Bishop Dupanloup of Orleans lauded the

success of Aurelles as the beginning of happier fortunes for the French warriors.

Gambetta still continued his unwearied exertions in increasing the army, and uniting the whole strength of the south and west into common action. He summoned constant supplies of troops from the south; he hastened to Brittany to conciliate the two quarrelsome commanders, Charette and Kératry; and he put the whole military forces of France in motion, that the Loire army might reach such dimensions that it would be in a position to drive the enemy out of the country. But the results of the campaign did not correspond with the great expectations which were cherished after the first successes. While the recent recruits, imperfectly drilled and clothed, were gradually incorporated with a larger division of the army, the Grand Duke Friedrich Franz von Mecklenburg-Schwerin, who had the command of the German forces in that district, marched westwards, defeated at Dreux, Chateauneuf, Digny, and in the forest of St. Jean, the Mobile Guards under General Fiéreck, who were attempting to join the Loire army, and in consequence produced such discouragement among the young troops that Kératry laid down his chief command, and Fiéreck had to be dismissed. Different divisions marched through Nogent le Rotrou to Le Mans, watched and followed by the Germans. As, however, they had certain signs at the head-quarters at Versailles that the French were collecting considerable forces on the Loire, thence to deal a master-blow at the besieging army, the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg received orders to unite his division with the second army of Prince Friedrich Karl, so that the latter now held the chief command over the allied German forces in the south. Simultaneously the general advanced from Troyes westward through Sens and Tremours, and, in conjunction with the Bavarians and the tenth army corps under Voigts Rhetz, frustrated, in the bloody battle of Beaune la Rolande (28th Nov.), the design of the enemy of marching through Fontainebleau to Paris. A further attempt to break through the line in a more westerly direction was defeated at Loigny on the 2nd December. The French were now compelled to retreat with considerable losses; while on the German side also, chassepots, mitrailleuses, and mortars had sacrificed many victims, and the march on the saturated, marshy ground was accompanied by interminable difficulties and hardships.

In Paris, Trochu had counted definitely on relief and succour. The repeated sallies which he made about this time in a southerly and easterly direction were undertaken in the hope of furthering the friendly efforts from outside; and the rhetorical proclamations of Gambetta, declaring that the genius of France had been momentarily clouded, but would again shine forth in its glory, bore witness to the confidence with which he and his colleagues were inspired, or pretended to be inspired.

The Loire Army Scattered.—Sufferings of the War.



URING the bloody encounters round Loigny, the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg also had marched southwards, had repulsed the enemy near Artenay, where the Bavarians had already gained a victorious battle in October, and in other engagements; and he now joined hands with Prince Friedrich Karl, who had established his head-quarters at Pithiviers. A four days' struggle on the bank of the Loire ended in the defeat of the French army; and after a last unsuccessful attempt to maintain the town, celebrated for its associations with the warrior-maid, the French troops were compelled to take flight southwards, when the Germans once more entered Orleans as victors (4th Dec.). A number of prisoners and considerable war-booty fell into their hands; the Loire army, in scattered bands, made its way towards Blois; Bishop Dupanloup was placed under military supervision in his palace, and prisoners were quartered in the cathedral. Gambetta himself, who endeavoured to ride to the battle-field from Tours, almost fell into the hands of the Prussians. Aurelles de Paladine, on whom the energetic minister laid the blame of the failure of the manœuvre, also relinquished his command.

The dictator now conceived the plan of dividing the troops into two armies, of which the first was to be under the command of Bourbaki, and was to operate on the east; the second, under Chanzy, was to drive back the enemy on the Central and Lower Loire. And in order to have greater freedom in his enterprises, Gambetta removed the seat of the Government delegation from Tours to Bordeaux (10th Dec.). The revolutionary activity of the dictator only increased with obstacles; and however much poverty and the burdens of the war oppressed the people, the excited national feeling of the French, the Republican enthusiasm in the towns, want of work, and hatred of the foreign invaders, brought constant supplies of fresh troops under his banner. Chanzy, after successfully opposing the troops of the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg, set out in the direction of the Sarthe to ally himself with the western army; constantly pursued by the Germans, however, his army was at last completely exhausted by struggles and marches, cold and hunger, while in the meantime Bourbaki was driven southwards by Prince Friedrich Karl, and all the country to Bourges and Tours was laid waste by the enemy. The Loire army was now effectively cut off from Paris; and as Christmas approached, Tann took up his winter quarters at Orleans, and permitted his wearied and diminished troops the rest which they so much needed. But the flight of the inhabitants from Touraine to the south bore witness to the general terror which the Germans inspired. Dismay and fear had taken hold of all minds. Even among the Mobile Guards there sprang up a rebellious spirit, and such dread of the German arms, that permanent courts-martial were established, and military gendarmes urged forward the laggards and the cowardly. And what a pitch of misery was reached when, at the end of the old and beginning of the new year, a winter of exceptional severity came to swell the list of miseries and calamities! In many districts military boards had to undertake the care of the inhabitants, for they would have

fallen victims to starvation without such aid. The German troops had also to suffer untold misery in long, cold days and nights ; while in the skirmishes between the Loire and Sarthe, many a brave soldier's heart ceased to beat on the snow-fields of Perche.

AMIENS.—BAPAUME.—ST. QUENTIN.

THE hopes of the Parisians for succour from the south gradually dwindled away ; cold and hunger beset them with constantly increasing severity. Nevertheless, anticipations were still cherished that help might come from the north and north-west, from Normandy, Artois, and Picardy. Since October considerable forces had been collected in that region, and, protected by the fortresses of Lille and Amiens, had offered a bold front to the German army. It was only by the most unremitting activity, and after several smaller encounters, that Generals Von Manteuffel and Goeben succeeded in gradually obtaining possession of the territory of the Somme. Amiens was now invested by Goeben (28th Nov.), and a few days later the ancient and famous capital of the Seine, Rouen, was also compelled to open its gates to the German army ; while on the 9th December the important sea-town of Dieppe with its excellent harbour also fell into their hands. In uninterrupted flight the French forces now hastened, in the most intense cold of winter, towards Havre de Grace, which they reached in the most miserable and half-starved condition, and where they allied themselves with the troops of General Briand. The country people also trooped in shoals into the town, bringing with them their cattle and their most valuable property. Often parties of Uhlans passed by, and filled whole villages with terror. These swift horsemen were as much dreaded by the French as the Cossacks had once been by their fathers. At Havre the greatest excitement prevailed ; in order to tranquillize the citizens, and spur them on to continued resistance, the intelligence of a successful sally from Paris was spread abroad, and fresh troops were at once despatched from Brest and Cherbourg. In point of fact, Trochu had about this time ordered another sally ; but it was rendered fruitless by the watchfulness of the guard, and during Christmas no further march out was attempted.

In Normandy, on the other hand, the year came to a bloody termination. Gambetta's terrorist measures aroused fresh desire for conflict. While Manteuffel was directing his attention towards the western army, the French succeeded once more in temporarily obtaining possession of the fortresses of Ham, St. Quentin, La Fère (12th to 19th Dec.). In order to prevent the northern army from approaching Paris, Manteuffel and Goeben now turned once more towards Amiens, reached the town, after a succession of battles, with the assistance of General Bentheim, and finally drove back the enemy towards Arras and Douay. This was followed by other successes—the capture of the small fortress of Rocroy by General Senden on the 5th of January, and the ancient town of Peronne, where Louis XI. was once imprisoned by Charles the Bold of Burgundy. General Manteuffel's departure to the eastern army gave the enterprising General Faidherbe fresh courage. As he was retreating, however, towards St. Quentin, he was attacked and



THE RETREAT TO CAMBRAY.

defeated by General Goeben in a seven hours' battle (19th Jan.), and was compelled to retreat to Cambray, pursued by the German cavalry. St. Quentin was stormed, and thousands of prisoners were carried off to German barracks and fortresses.

Gambetta now hastened to Lille, and made further efforts to rouse the drooping energies of the hungry, worn-out soldiery; but as regarded the relief of Paris, no more could be expected from the northern army. Gambetta returned to Bordeaux to set further schemes in action, and make one last attempt to rescue distressed Paris. Just at this time, however, when, through the conquest of the fortress of Longwy (25th Jan.), the northern districts, with the exception of a few places, fell into the hands of the Germans, and the fate of the capital seemed definitely decided, the attention of Europe was turned to the seat of war in the east, to the Jura and Saone district, where fresh feats of arms were being transacted.



THE NEW GERMAN EMPIRE AND THE PEACE.

THE VARIOUS GERMAN GOVERNMENTS.—THE NORTH GERMAN EMPIRE INAUGURATED.—THE BOMBARDMENT OF PARIS, AND LAST SALLY OF THE DEFENDERS.—THE CONVENTION OF PARIS.—THE FRENCH FLEET.—NUITS AND HÉRICOURT.—ANNIHILATION OF THE EASTERN ARMY.—BELFORT, AND THE PRELIMINARIES OF PEACE AT VERSAILLES.—ENTRY OF THE GERMAN TROOPS INTO PARIS.—STATE OF AFFAIRS IN FRANCE AND GERMANY.—THE COMMUNE AND ITS WORK OF DEVASTATION.—VENGEANCE ON THE COMMUNISTS.—REJOICINGS IN GERMANY.

THE GOVERNMENTS AND THE CHAMBERS.



WHILE all eyes were being directed to the military proceedings on the Seine, the Loire, the Somme, and the east of France, the development of the Constitution of the German Empire was being carried to completion, and the unity of Germany was being firmly established. Now, when the soldier of South Germany was staking his life and blood side by side with the North German, to maintain the highest rights of the people,—when every difference of race or creed was forgotten, and the honour and independence of the fatherland was the universal watchword, the time appeared to have arrived for closing the breach between north and south, and setting aside the unnatural Maine line boundary which the war had already broken through. The Governments themselves, and Baden in the first instance, now petitioned for union; and, towards the end of the year, plenipotentiaries from the kingdoms of Bavaria and Würtemberg and



EMPEROR WILLIAM OF GERMANY.

the Grand Duchies of Baden and Hesse set out for Versailles, there to negotiate treaties with the chancellor of the North German League, and to define the modifications under which the North German Constitutional League might be adapted to the South German States. The North German League Constitution, which had prevailed for three years from the Baltic to the Maine, was to be the basis of further development and a more comprehensive extension. For many weeks the whole German nation was in a state of extreme tension; a large party in the Second Chamber was opposed to the scheme, and apprehensions were general that the cause of German unity would suffer shipwreck. Even when King Louis, in youthful enthusiasm for the restoration of the German Empire, addressed a memorable letter to the Prussian king at

Versailles, in which he announced that he had come to an understanding with the other German princes "that the extension of the rights should be accompanied with the introduction of the title of German Emperor," and when the majority had already given their consent in the Chamber of the Reichsrath, there was still some doubt whether the "patriots" of the Second Chamber would desist from their opposition.

When the North German Diet at Berlin had given its consent to the new Constitution, a congratulatory address was despatched to the Prussian monarch at Versailles. Thirty members of the Diet, with the president Simson at their head, announced to the aged hero-king the nation's wish that he should accept the new dignity. The noble prince then replied to the deputation in solemn audience, that he accepted the Imperial dignity which the German nation and its princes had offered him. On the 1st of January, 1871, the new Constitution was to come into operation. The solemn assumption of the Imperial office did not take place, however, until the 18th January, the day on which, one hundred and seventy years before, the new Emperor's ancestor, Frederick I., had placed the Prussian crown on his head at Königsberg, and thus laid the basis of the growing greatness of his house. It was an ever-memorable coincidence, that in that superb-mirrored hall of the Versailles palace, where, since the days of Richelieu, so many plans had been concerted for the humiliation of Germany, King William should now proclaim himself German Emperor. After the reading of the Imperial proclamation to the German people by Count Bismarck, the Grand Duke led a cheer, in which the whole assembly joined amid the singing of national hymns. Thus the important event had taken place which again summoned the German Empire to life, and made over the Imperial crown with renewed splendour to another royal house. Barbarossa's old legend, that the dominion of the Empire was, after long tribulation, to pass from the Hohenstaufen to the Hohenzollern, was now fulfilled; the dream long aspired after by German youth, the ideal to which the men at St. Paul's Church had remained faithful, had now become a reality and a living fact.

The Bombardment of Paris and the Last Sally.

DURING these political and diplomatic events, the war operations before Paris and in the provinces had continued an uninterrupted course. Moltke had succeeded, in spite of the difficulties of transport, in procuring an immense quantity of ammunition, and the long-delayed bombardment of Paris was now to commence. Having stationed with all secrecy twelve batteries with seventy-six guns around Mont Avron, on Christmas-day, the firing was directed with such success against the fortified eminences, that even in the second night the French, after great losses, evacuated the important position, the "key of Paris," which was immediately taken possession of by the Saxons (27th Dec.). Terror and dismay spread throughout the distracted city when the eastern forts, Rosny, Nogent, and Noisy, were stormed amid a tremendous volley of firing. Vainly did Trochu endeavour to rouse the failing courage of the National Guard; vainly did he assert that the Government of the National Defence would never consent to the humiliation of a capitulation: his own authority had already waned; the newspapers already accused him of incapacity and treachery, and began to cast every aspersion on the men who had presumptuously seized the government, and yet were not in a position to effect the defence of the capital and the country. After

the new year (5th Jan., 1871), the bombardment of the southern forts of Issy, Vanvres, Montrouge, was commenced, and terror in the city increased day by day; but the terrorism which the radical journals, the clubs, and the Commune exercised, kept in check any thought of surrender or negotiation. It had been thought impossible in Paris that a bombardment could be effected at such a distance; but now, when the German missiles were falling into the town, and struck the Palais de Luxembourg, the Church of St. Sulpice, and the Pantheon, while several persons were killed, an outcry of indignation once more arose against the barbarians who ventured to injure the sacred metropolis of civilization. The members of the diplomatic body who had



PRUSSIAN OUTWORKS AT METZ.

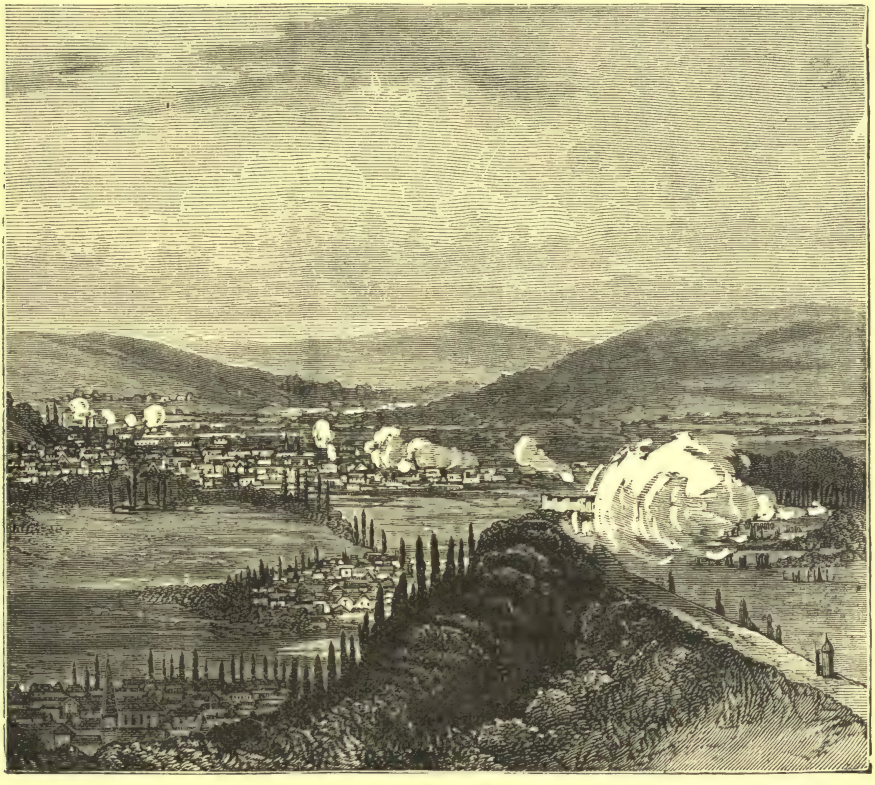
remained in Paris made complaints to the Government, and demanded the protection of the property of strangers in the French capital; they were told, however, that they had had ample warning and time allowed them for leaving. On the complaint of Jules Favre that even schools and hospitals were struck by the bombs and shells of the enemy, Moltke replied that, as they came nearer, and could more clearly descry the different objects, such buildings should be spared. In spite of fog and snow-storms, the bombardment was systematically continued; all the batteries were in telegraphic communication with Versailles, so that everything could be carried on in a concerted way, and with every day the terrible missiles obtained still greater dimensions. In Paris, endeavours were made, by ostentatious declarations, to

conceal inward fear and uneasiness, and to represent the position of the Germans as difficult and dangerous; and Gambetta's new war schemes on the east were confidently relied on, to strike the death-blow which had hitherto miscarried in the north and south. Trochu was blamed for only having undertaken small sallies, which could have no result. The commander-in-chief ventured no opposition to the party of action. With the consent of the mayors of the twenty *arrondissements* of Paris, a council of war was held. The threatening famine, the firing of the enemy, and the excitement prevailing among the adherents of the red Republic rendered a decisive step necessary. Consequently, on the 19th of January, a great sally was decided on, and the entire armed forces of the capital were summoned to arms. Early in the morning, a body of 100,000 men marched in the direction of Meudon, Sevres, and St. Cloud for the decisive conflict. The left wing was commanded by General Vinoy, the right by Ducrot, while Trochu from the watch-tower directed the entire struggle. With great courage Vinoy dashed forward with his column of attack towards the fifth army corps of General Kirchbach, and succeeded in capturing the Montretout entrenchment, through the superior number of his troops, and in holding it for a time. But when Ducrot, delayed by the barricades in the streets, did not come to his assistance at the appointed time, the attack was driven back after seven hours' fierce fighting by the besieging troops. Having lost 7,000 dead and wounded, the French in the evening beat a retreat, which almost resembled a flight. On the following day Trochu demanded a truce, that the fallen National Guards, whose bodies strewed the battle-field, might be interred. The victors, too, had to render the last rites to many a brave soldier. Thirty-nine officers and six hundred and sixteen soldiers were given in the list of the slain.

The "Convention" of Paris.

ENTIRE confidence had been placed by the Parisians in the great sally. When the defeat, therefore, became known in its full significance, when the number of the fallen was found to be far greater even than had been stated in the first accounts, a dull despair took possession of the famished city, which next broke forth into violent abuse against Trochu, "the traitor." Capitulation now seemed imminent; but as the commander-in-chief had declared that he would never countenance such a disgrace, he resigned his post to Vinoy. Threatened by bombardment from without, terrified within by the pale spectre of famine, paralysed and distracted by the violent dissensions among the people, and without prospect of effective aid from the provinces, what remained to the proud capital but to desist from a conflict the continuation of which only increased the unspeakable misery, without the smallest hope of deliverance? Gradually, therefore, there grew up a resolution to enter into negotiations with the enemy; and it was the minister Jules Favre, who had been foremost with the cry of "no surrender" four months before, who was now compelled to take the first step to deliver his country from complete ruin. It was probably the bitterest hour in the life of the brave man, who loved France and liberty with such a sincere affection, when he was conducted through the German outposts to his interview with Bismarck at Versailles. He brought the proposal for a Convention, on the strength of which the garrison was to be permitted to retire with military honours to a part of France not hitherto invested, on promising to abstain for several months from taking part in the struggle. But such conditions were positively refused at the

Prussian head-quarters, and a surrender was demanded as at Sedan and Metz. Completely defeated, the minister returned to Paris. At a second meeting on the following day, it was agreed that from the 27th, at twelve o'clock at night, the firing on both sides should be discontinued. This was the preliminary to the conclusion of a three weeks' truce, to await the summons of a National Assembly, with which peace might be negotiated.



METZ BESIEGED BY THE GERMANS.

The summoning of the Convention was proceeded with in order and tranquillity; the forts were evacuated and garrisoned by the Germans; necessary preparations were made for the elections, and the virulence of the Parisian democracy passed unheeded. What the capitulation of Sedan had been for the French Empire, the Paris Convention was for the Republic. The victory was gained, the war-struggle was in its last throes. Even the enterprises by sea, from which the North German coast-country had dreaded such injury and danger, had been entirely ineffectual. Had the ironclad fleet which was fitted out at Cherbourg at the beginning of the war with valiant crews appeared in the North Sea, it would have gained aid, if not allies, in Holland and Denmark, where the anti-Prussian party was so strong. But when the vice-admiral, Count Bonet Villaumez, sailed into the North Sea, to menace the coast, vigorous preparations for defence had already been made, and the invasion of France by the land forces had already damped warlike fire at Copenhagen. The French ambassador, the Duc de Padoua, was received at the Danish

capital with cold reserve; and when, soon afterwards, the forces intended for the navy had to be used for active service on land, the successes of the French navy were proved to be not much more brilliant than those of the armies.

Through the energetic operations of General Vogel von Falckenstein, the mouths of the river, and the landing-places on the North Sea and Baltic, were protected from hostile attack, so that throughout the whole summer the French fleet of war, from fear of the strand batteries and torpedoes, did not venture to come near the coast, and limited itself only to the blockade of the harbour-towns of Kiel, Lübeck, Stralsund, and Stettin, and the capturing of German trading-ships. It was difficult to effect a landing on the coasts, owing to shallows and sandbanks; the second French fleet, which sailed under Fourichon into the North Sea, found no assailable point on the "inhospitable shores"; and the commander, having effected nothing, returned to Cherbourg. In the Baltic, where Bonet had sailed in the autumn, the French fleet gained equally small renown. Twice did the Pomeranian town of Colberg, which had defended itself so heroically in the year 1807, behold the enemy's fleet in the vicinity; but it also escaped the dreaded bombardment, and the commander-in-chief was soon compelled by the stormy Baltic tides to withdraw. Thus the danger to Germany by sea passed over; and the North German towns, which on the outbreak of the war had been full of apprehension, now breathed freely again. Nevertheless, the injury which Germany sustained by the destruction of the sea-trade, and the capture of Prussian and North German merchant-ships by the superior French fleet in all the seas, was not inconsiderable. But this injury was small in comparison with the great shipwreck which the French State had undergone in all its material and ideal possessions.

Nuits and Héricourt.

BUT the bloodshed was not yet at an end. The disasters of the French on the battle-field in the south-east were about to reach a pitch which should surpass anything that they had experienced on the Loire, the Sarthe, and the Somme.

In the Convention at Paris, it was demanded on the German side that Belfort should not be included in the truce, and that the siege of this fortress should continue. Jules Favre consented, with the stipulation that Bourbaki's army should retain liberty as to its military movements; a demand which was readily consented to at Versailles, for Manteuffel had already received commands to penetrate through the Vosges Pass into the Saone territory, and co-operate with Werder's division. We know with what perseverance this excellent general had, in the autumn of 1870, defended, with insufficient troops, the old Burgundian country against the French Mobile Guards and Franctireurs, and against the freebooters of Garibaldi. For a longer time he had his head-quarters at Dijon, whence, during November and December, he kept the enemy in check in several small battles; and finally, when Garibaldi, who conducted his operations from the old town of Autun, and the French general Cremer, advanced with their more numerous forces to purge the fertile vine country from the German troops, and to invest Belfort, they met with a resistance such as they had never expected. They had already reached Nuits, south of Dijon, and had fortified the little town with barricades, and the surrounding heights with eighteen cannon. There, however, two brigades

under General Glümer and Prince Wilhelm ventured to attack the enemy in their favourable position (18th Dec., 1870), and succeeded, after a fierce struggle, in taking the place by storm. With losses of 2,000 men, the French retreated in the evening, leaving the battle-field, with 700 prisoners, in the hands of the victors. The Germans also had heavy losses. Fifty-four officers and upwards of nine hundred men lay dead or wounded upon the field, while Prince William himself was borne wounded from the scene of action. Soon afterwards the Germans observed a great commotion among the French southern army: Gambetta had determined on a last bold stroke. Bourbaki, one of the most skilful generals of the Empire, was ordered to march eastward to Nevers, and there, uniting the different bands together, to attack the Germans, liberate Belfort and the districts on the Upper Rhine, and then, reinforced by voluntary troops, to carry the fire-brand and the war furies into the Baden upper country and the fair valleys of the Black Forest. At the same time renewed efforts were to be made from the north and south for the relief of Paris, and thus a crushing blow was to be dealt to the whole German forces. Telegraphs, railways, and bridges were destroyed, so that the retreat or flight to the Rhine should be impeded. In his excited imagination, Gambetta believed he should witness a second Russian campaign; and the newspapers already sounded a song of triumph, and lauded in advance the secret and ingenious plan of the dictator. We already know what fearful marches and battles were encountered in the cold days of January around Le Mans and Vendôme, Amiens, and St. Quentin, and the onslaughts made by the Parisian garrison troops on the Prussian lines of besiegers; about the same time, in a nocturnal sally made by Franctireurs, the bridge over the Moselle, near Fontenoy, was blown up, thus interrupting the railway communication for ten days, and a detachment attempted a sudden attack near Chaumont (22nd Jan., 1871). With the last energy of desperate men, the French threw themselves upon the enemy. General Werder, with 28,000 men, was stationed in and around Dijon; while Bourbaki, with his mixed army, marched on through Besançon to Montbéliard, to occupy Belfort and then penetrate through to Alsace. Werder then evacuated Dijon, and soon after was victorious in the sharp battle of Villersexel, on the Oignon; while, a few days later, the important positions of Frahier, Chagny, Luze, through Héricourt to Busserel and Montbéliard, were defended in a hard three days' struggle against the superior forces of the enemy, thus allowing time for Manteuffel's auxiliary troops to approach (15th to 17th June). Justly has this conflict at Héricourt been compared with the battle of Thermopylæ, though fortunately the result was less tragic than at the hot gates of Thessaly; eighty-seven officers and nearly two thousand men lay strewn on the battle-field on the German side, while the losses of the enemy were fivefold.

Annihilation of the Eastern Army.

BOURBAKI had intended to march southwards from Besançon to Lyons, but it was too late. Manteuffel had started with two army corps through Auxerre and Avallon to the assistance of Werder's troops, and Bourbaki was finally surrounded in a half-circle by Werder, Zastrow, Franzechy, till he was at last reduced to a position similar to MacMahon's at Sedan, and nothing remained to him but capitulation or departure into the neutral territory of Switzerland (24th to 27th Jan.). Garibaldi's freebooters, however, succeeded

in this battle in gaining a triumph such as had not befallen the French throughout the entire campaign: they captured a Prussian banner. At Dijon, only bloody skirmishes were taking place, expressly brought about to detain Garibaldi at Dijon, and prevent his union with Bourbaki. They only served to hasten the result of the campaign in the Jura, and this was so speedily and decisively brought about that nothing remained for the old commander but to evacuate Dijon. He soon afterwards relinquished his command, and returned to his island of Caprera.

While the Prussians, under General Hann, again occupied Dijon on the 1st of February, the fate of the last French army had been decided in an unexpected manner. As already stated, the scene of warfare in the east—the departments of Côte d'Or, Jura, and Doubs—had been excluded from the truce in the Paris Convention. Thus hostilities were still carried on both before Belfort and with Bourbaki's army, which, shut in among the snow-covered valleys of the Jura, with a scant supply of food and insufficient ammunition, soon fell into a dangerous position. This army was attacked on the 27th January by the German troops near Salins, west of Pontarlier, and was driven towards the Swiss frontier, with great losses in prisoners and ammunition. Bourbaki was now replaced by General Clinchant, to whom remained only the sorrowful choice of a capitulation as at Sedan, or refuge on the neutral soil of Switzerland. He chose the latter; and thus Europe witnessed the memorable spectacle of an army of 85,000 men, in the most miserable, dirty, and half-starved condition, saving itself by flight to a neighbouring country from an enemy who menaced it in its own.

Belfort and the Preliminaries of Versailles.



With the occupation of the forts around Paris, and the destruction of the great Bourbaki army, the war between France and Germany was virtually at an end. Gambetta's *levée en masse* was pitifully frustrated; the French, who had so long obeyed his revolutionary dictatorship, renounced the authority of the "organizer of defeats," and loudly demanded the end of a war which had cost so much precious blood, and ruined so much prosperity and happiness. When the Assembly was constituted, and had elected the moderate Republican, Grévy, as president, Jules Favre and his colleagues relinquished their powers into the hands of the representatives of the people. Four days later a Provisional Government was established, and the aged statesman and historian, Thiers, was appointed chief of the executive power of the French Republic, his ministers consisting of several members of the National Defence—Favre, Picard, Simon, Leflô, etc. As the end of the truce was at hand, a further prolongation of peace was desired, to allow of the development of the negotiations for peace; and after the surrender of Belfort, with the stipulation that the brave garrison which had so long defended it should

retire with military honours, nothing more stood in the way of a further extension of the truce. On the suggestion of Jules Favre, the National Assembly elected a commission of fifteen members, which was to aid the chief of the executive, and his ministers Picard and Favre, in the negotiations for peace. That cessions of territory and indemnity of war expenses would have to be conceded had long been acknowledged in principle; but protracted and excited discussions took place as to the extent of the former and the amount of the latter, while the demanded entry of the German troops into Paris met with vehement opposition. But Count Bismarck resolutely insisted on the cession of Alsace and German Lorraine, including Metz and Diedenhofen. Only with difficulty were the Germans persuaded to separate Belfort from the rest of Lorraine, and leave it still in the possession of the French. In respect to the expenses of the war, the sum of five milliards of francs was agreed upon, of which the first milliard was to be paid in the year 1871, and the rest in a stated period. The stipulated entry into Paris also—so bitter to the French national pride—was only partially carried out; the western side only of the city was to be traversed in the march of the Prussian troops, and again evacuated in two days. On the basis of these conditions, the preliminaries of the Peace of Versailles were concluded on the 26th February between the Imperial Chancellor and Jules Favre. Intense excitement prevailed when the terms of the treaty became known; they were dark days in the annals of French history. But in spite of the opposition of the extreme Republican party, led by Quinet and Victor Hugo, the Assembly recognised by an overpowering majority the necessity for the Peace, and the preliminaries were accepted by 546 to 107 votes.



THIERS.

Thus ended the mighty war between France and Germany—a war which has had no equal in the history of the world. Two great nations brought to bear upon each other all their combined military forces—the one to maintain its powerful position and supremacy in Europe, the other to protect its independence from foreign interference. On no other occasion have such enormous armies ever met face to face as in this eventful war: at Gravelotte, 270,000 Germans took the field against 210,000 Frenchmen; at Sedan, 210,000 Germans against 150,000 Frenchmen; in the last battle, near Orleans, the numbers were 100,000 Germans against 200,000 Frenchmen; while at Héricourt only 30,000 Prussian and Baden troops were opposed to Bourbaki's army, more than 100,000 strong.

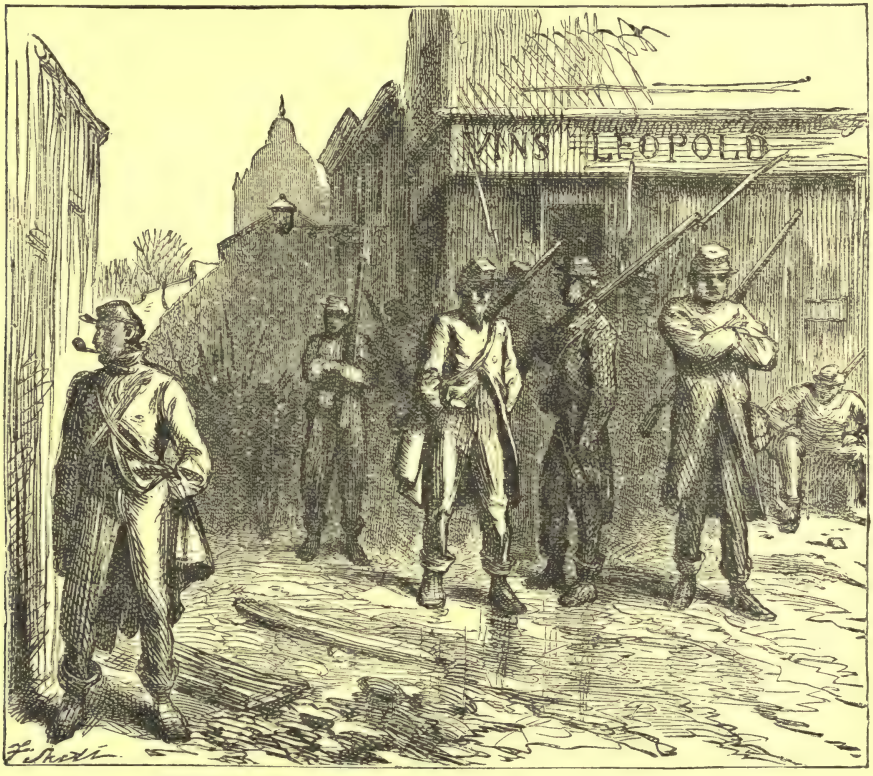
The Entry into Paris, and State of Affairs in France and Germany.



On the same 1st of March on which the preliminaries of peace were agreed upon at Bordeaux, followed the entry of the German troops into the western portion of the town. So much had been conceded at Versailles to the national susceptibilities of the French, that an occupation of the capital was not insisted on. Thus it was arranged that some Prussian and Bavarian troops should march to Mont Valérien and the Arc de Triomphe through the Champs Elysées, to the Place de la Concorde, and should encamp and take up their quarters in the portions of Paris north of the Seine. Accordingly, the detachments appointed to march in were drawn up before the gates of the town, where the German Emperor held a review, and then set out on their march to the appointed places with perfect equanimity and military demeanour, without vouchsafing any notice of the various expressions of exasperation from the numerous concourse of people that had assembled (2nd March). On the following day, while the ratification of the Peace was being proceeded with at Bordeaux, the march back took place, but little disturbed by the hostile demonstrations with which scattered knots of people gave vent to their impotent rage. Orders were next given for the evacuation of the territory south and west of the Seine, and reviews of the troops were held by the royal commander, who now vacated his head-quarters at Versailles, where he had resided for five months.

The conclusion of the Peace was received throughout France and Germany with widely different feelings. The representatives of monarchical sentiments, moderate Republicans, and the rustic population of France greeted the announcement with gratitude and delight; although heavy sacrifices had to be endured, yet compulsory military service was at an end, many hundred thousand prisoners would return to their homes and their families, and with industry and frugality their losses might be counterbalanced, the destroyed towns and villages might be rebuilt, and a new foundation laid for future prosperity and happiness. But this self-restraint and resignation was not shared by a large part of the spoiled and capricious nation. Instead of exhibiting a manly regret and resignation, the republican Hotspurs, social democrats, and lower classes of the population in the great towns, inveighed

loudly against cowardice and treachery, swore hatred and revenge against the Germans, and sought a cure for the evils wrought by the long war in the realization of the old watchwords, "Liberty, equality, and fraternity." Partly from fear of the democracy, and partly from wounded national pride, many of the French, including several distinguished merchants, bankers, and students, took a vow to renounce all intercourse with Germany, and to dismiss all Germans from their service. Among the representatives of the people sent to Bordeaux, dissensions and party strife prevailed, which increased when the ex-Emperor, in a manifesto issued shortly before his journey from Wilhelmshöhe to Chiselhurst, protested against the deposition by the National Assembly of



FRENCH NATIONAL GUARDS DURING THE SIEGE OF PARIS.

the Bonaparte dynasty, and demanded a fresh general election. Montmartre, Belleville, Villette, and other quarters of Paris were in a state of wild excitement, which reached even a greater pitch when the National Assembly commenced considering the question, whether the seat of the new government should be at Paris, Versailles, or Fontainebleau. Versailles was at last decided upon, the spot which during the whole winter had been the head-quarters of the Prussian army.

Now, however, the revolution in Paris burst forth. The social democratic "Commune" of Paris, elected from the central committee of the National Guard, with Blanqui, Pyat, Assy, Cluseret, Grousset, etc., at its head, renounced obedience to the Government and National Assembly at Versailles, and, when attempts were made to repress the movement, organized an armed resistance.

The Government had neglected to take possession of the cannon on Montmartre; and now, when the troops of the line, instead of firing on the insurrectionists, went over in crowds to their side, the supremacy over Paris fell into the hands of the wildest demagogues. A fearful civil war now commenced, and, in the same forts which the Germans had shortly before evacuated, firing once more resounded; the houses, gardens, and villages around Paris were again surrendered to destruction, and the creations of art, industry, and civilization, and the abodes of wealth and pleasure were once more transformed into dreary wildernesses.



LÉON GAMBETTA.

THE COMMUNE'S WORK OF DEVASTATION.



WE do not wish to include within the limits of this work a description of the painful scenes in this civil conflict which were enacted under the eyes of the remaining German garrisons—the wild outbreaks of mad political fanaticism on the part of the Commune, and the degeneracy and want of judgment shown by the Versailles Government. In the spring days of 1871, Paris added another leaf to the history of crime and violence which have so often had their scene of action in the streets of the city of the Seine. Not only did the insurgents murder the two generals,

Lecomte and Thomas (22nd March), fire on a number of unarmed citizens, who, as the "friends of order," desired a reconciliation with Versailles, seize the reins of government, extort loans, and confiscate the property of religious societies, and detain Archbishop Darboy and many distinguished ecclesiastics and



RETURNING FROM THE WAR.

citizens as hostages, but when Marshal MacMahon with his troops of the line approached the bridge of Neuilly, and the surrender of the excited and tumultuous capital was inevitable, the Commune disgraced itself with incredible Vandalism and bloody violence. The Vendôme column, the symbol of French warlike renown, was torn down (26th May); the noblest buildings in

the city were set on fire by mad men and women, and either partially or entirely destroyed. Among these were the Tuileries, a portion of the Louvre, the Luxembourg, the Palais Royal, Elysée, etc.; while several imprisoned hostages, foremost among them Archbishop Darboy of Paris and the universally respected minister Daguerry, were shot. Such crimes excited the Versailles troops to terrible vengeance, when they at last succeeded in repressing the rebellion. They went their way along a bloody course; human life was counted as nothing. When at last the Commune surrendered, the judicial courts at Versailles began their work of revenge. The leaders and participators in the rebellion who could not save themselves by flight were shot by hundreds, confined in fortresses, or transported to the colonies. For more than a year the imprisonments, trials, and executions continued. The struggles in Paris were not yet at an end, when the Peace preliminaries were finally concluded at Frankfort (10th May), and an arrangement made, both with regard to the payment of indemnity and the frontier line, which forthwith obtained the confirmation of the Emperor of Germany and the French National Assembly. The delighted state of feeling which the news of the conclusion of the Peace excited throughout Germany, is fresh within the remembrance of all. The gigantic Peace festivals which were everywhere inaugurated from one end of the land to the other, and the warm sympathy shown by Germans in foreign lands in the new national organization, bore witness to the elevated feeling of patriotism which the glorious result of this mighty conflict had awakened in German hearts. At the first Imperial Diet at Berlin, held on the 31st March, at which deputies attended from the whole of Germany, both north and south of the Maine, the weighty business of discussing and framing laws was seriously commenced; measures were considered for the re-constitution of Alsace and Lorraine as part of the Empire, and to commemorate the nation's gratitude to the brave army by provision for the invalided and the families of the fallen. A sum of four millions was granted by the Emperor for distribution by a commission "among those German commanders and statesmen who had contributed during the recent war in such a striking manner towards the acquisition of such brilliant victories," and a similar sum was presented to the Governments of the different States for the granting of supplies of reserves and reinforcements. It has since been the chief aim of the German Diet, as well as of the Government and Chamber of Deputies in Prussia, to bring the new organization of the State into harmony with internal conditions by means of reform in the laws, to aim at greater conformity in public institutions, and to invest the Imperial power with a more secure authority.



GERMANY AND THE PAPAL CHURCH AFTER THE PEACE OF FRANKFORT.

THE FIRST DIET OF THE NORTH GERMAN EMPIRE.—DESIRE TO REVIVE THE PAPAL POWER.—CLERICAL ENCROACHMENTS ON THE STATE.—THE ULTRAMONTANES.—BISMARCK'S POLICY AT HOME AND ABROAD IN 1872.—ENDEAVOURS TO CONCILIATE AUSTRIA.—IMPROVED CONDITION OF FEELING IN THE SCANDINAVIAN KINGDOMS.—THE CHURCH AND THE STATE NEGOTIATIONS WITH THE VATICAN.—PIUS IX. AND HIS PRETENSIONS.—POWER OF THE GOVERNMENT, AND EPISCOPAL EXCOMMUNICATIONS.—STRONG MEASURES ADOPTED AT BERLIN.—STRICT ENFORCEMENT OF THE NEW LAWS AND REGULATIONS.

THE FIRST DIET, AND POSITION OF PARTIES.



AT one time the German Empire had been the heart of the European nationalities and State organizations. Through it pulsated the whole life of the European nations, while the German Emperor was the head among the crowned bearers of sceptres. It has already been described how this Imperial State fell, by internal and external circumstances, into a state of impotence and final dissolution. To reanimate this mutilated and dismembered body had been for many years the aim of all German patriots, and now a great historical event had unexpectedly again called it into existence, as if by a creative force of nature. This event was beheld by the political world with widely different feelings, particularly as it occurred simultaneously with the military fall of the French nation, and with the decay of the temporal power of the Pope. Foreign countries saw with little favour this revival of a great Power in the centre of Europe, through whom the equilibrium of political affairs would be completely upset. Thus the first task calling for the attention of the Imperial State was a "struggle for existence," to maintain its position

abroad, and to overcome and conciliate contradictory forces from within. Even in the speeches on the address from the throne, it was evident that a number of deputies desired to combine the restoration of the Empire with the revival of the Papacy. The leaders of this clerical party—Mallinckrodt, Reichensperger, Windthorst, etc.—belonged to North Germany; while the Catholic South had elected, for the most part, Liberal representatives. The Clericals, who regarded the Encyclica and the Syllabus as the highest law, wished to keep the new Empire in the same path, in following which the old Empire had met its destruction, and to render the new Imperial State the "temporal arm" of the hierarchy, with the half-veiled object of bringing about a German intervention on behalf of the temporal power of the Pope. This policy excited considerable opposition among those who did not wish to surrender themselves to an authority which would only countenance the Roman Catholic Church as a State religion. When the decrees of the Vatican became known, the superintendent Döllinger issued a public manifesto to the Archbishop of Munich-Freising, in which he declared that the new dogma of the supremacy and infallibility of the Pope was opposed to Holy Writ, as well as to the traditions of the Church. This manifesto of the learned theologian and the simultaneous debates in the Diet made clear to the nation what were the tendencies which the Ultramontane-Jesuit party was pursuing, and the policy to be adopted in regard to them. All the claims of the Ultramontanes on the temporal State, and all clerical encroachments on the civil power, were therefore unhesitatingly repelled. Schools were withdrawn from clerical supremacy, and placed under the administration and guardianship of the State, and energetic attempts were made to divest Church questions of any sectarian and religious character.

The organization of the newly annexed provinces of Alsace and Lorraine was wisely and honestly regulated by the chancellor Bismarck, who had shortly before been raised to the rank of Prince; and the Emperor was able to state, at the conclusion of his address, "that the Government and nation were united in the resolve that the recovered country, by gentle treatment of its institutions, by a mild administration, and a free development of its legislature, should be rendered a closely allied member of our great fatherland."

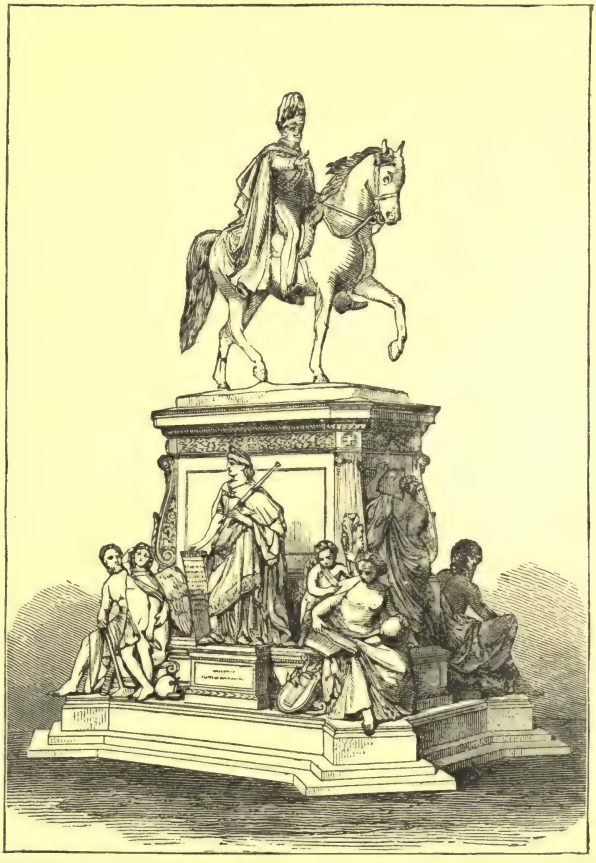
Bismarck's Policy Abroad and at Home in the Year 1872.



During the year 1872 Prince Bismarck's foreign policy was still animated by a steadfast desire to maintain international peace. He endeavoured to awaken the confidence of foreign Governments, and to allay any sentiment of malice or envy; while at the same time, by the improvement, completion, and increase of the military forces, it was evident that the new Prusso-German Empire was in a position to repel hostile attacks, and would not be content to drift, inactive and over-confiding, towards an unknown future. Above all was such an attitude adopted with regard to France; while efforts were made at Berlin to assist the Versailles Government in every possible manner in the great task of restoring the shattered State, by re-establishing diplomatic intercourse, by reorganizing the embassy in Paris, it did not fail to excite concern when it was evident that France was exerting all her powers to restore her army to the greatest pitch of efficiency, by compel-

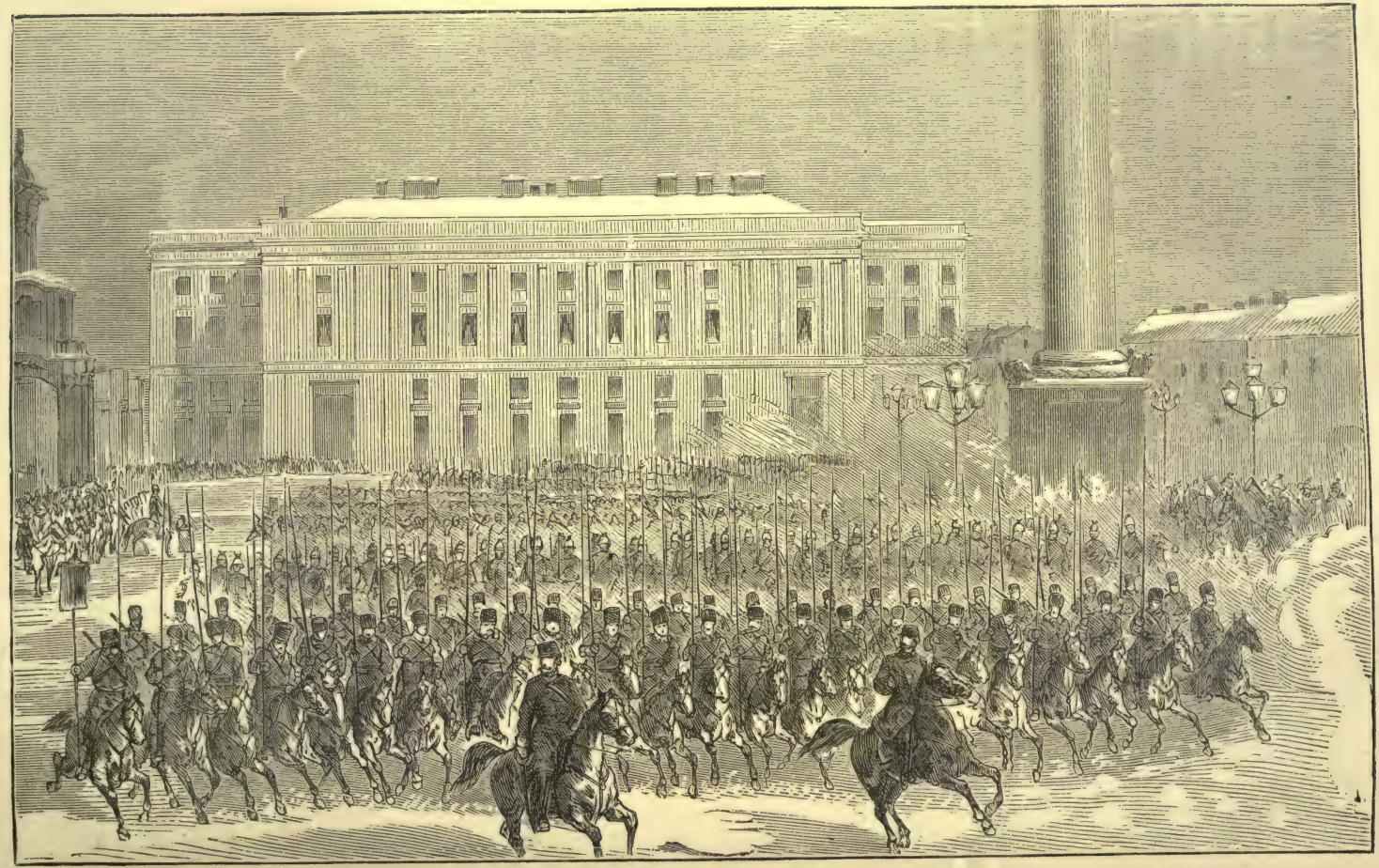
ling the whole nation, as in Germany, to enter the military service, and by the general improvement of her army organization.

At the same time, the Imperial Chancellor sought to induce the eastern Powers to adopt a friendly attitude. In Austria the German population regarded the elevation of the kindred Empire with sentiments of sympathy and good-will, and the German press did not fail to recognise this friendly feeling. On the other hand, the aristocracy, the Ultramontanes, and the non-German races were inspired with an envious and suspicious temper



THE STATUE OF KING FREDERICK WILLIAM III. AS COMPLETED.

towards the Prussian Empire. In Russia also, expressions of friendliness and congratulation were confined to the Imperial Court and a few members of the upper social circles, while the mass of the people and the Muscovite aristocracy maintained an attitude of coolness and reserve. As an exemplification of the friendly relations between the sovereigns and their counsellors, however, the three Emperors met at Berlin in September. It was not, as formerly, a renewal of the Holy Alliance against popular liberties, when the three most powerful monarchs, accompanied by their ministers for foreign affairs, met together in a friendly manner in the capital of the German Empire:



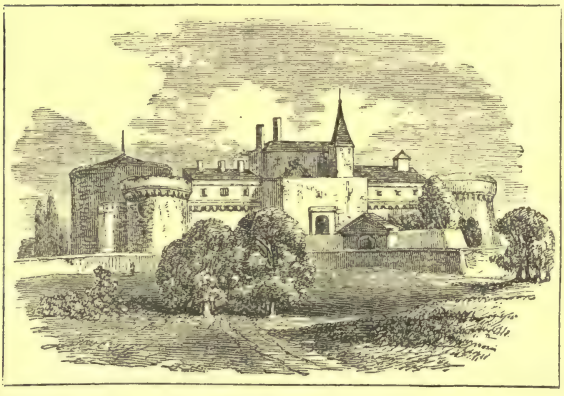
RUSSIAN MILITARY MANŒUVRES.

it was only a public token that the new order of things brought about by the Peace of Prague and of Frankfort was accepted as a practical and legitimate arrangement, and that the good understanding of the eastern Powers might be regarded as a fresh guarantee of peace. Previously also, the visit of the Crown Prince and Princess of Italy to Berlin had afforded a proof that the kingdom of the Apennines also wished well to the old alliance; and this fact was still further emphasized in the following year by the journey of Victor Emmanuel himself.

In the Scandinavian kingdoms also the feeling towards Germany became more favourable when, on the death of Charles XV. (18th Sept., 1872), his brother, Oscar II., ascended the throne. After his solemn coronation at Stockholm and Drontheim, the German Crown Prince paid the new sovereign a visit, and also passed through Copenhagen, where he met with friendly recognition. Since that time the wounds inflicted by the Danish war have gradually healed, and a conciliatory temper has been shown in acceptance of the new order of things. The hopes of the Danes for a final arrangement in the long open question of a national division of the frontier in North Schleswig thus approached their fulfilment.

This condition of peace abroad afforded the Imperial Chancellor the possibility of promoting the development of the allied German State by legislation adapted to the unification of the Empire. He was able, with the assistance of the greatest and most powerful German State, and with no other co-operators than the counsellors of the Imperial Chancellorship, to take upon himself the whole burden of business, the responsibility for which fell on himself alone. In the consideration of the rights, privileges, and stipulations of the different Princes and Governments, the Chancellor judiciously endeavoured, in every possible manner, to win over general public opinion in favour of the new order of things, by a wise leniency and forbearance in matters of detail, and an endeavour to avoid, as much as possible, exciting jealousy and tender susceptibilities.

Church and State.



BISMARCK now undertook, in conjunction with the Diet, a conflict with the other Roman Power, which, on the same day as the French declaration of war, also declared war, through the dogma of the Infallibility of the Pope, against all who would not submit unreservedly to the authority of the head of the Church. Through the romantic temper of King William IV., and the High Church and Conservative tendencies of the court circles in opposition to the Liberal and Radical ideas of the time, it had come about that the Catholic Church had had unlimited sway over the Prussian monarchy, that the clergy were emancipated from the laws of the State to a greater extent than in the Catholic

States; and that throughout the whole of North Germany a number of monasteries, orders, and congregations sprang up, and flourished in perfect freedom and independence. Indeed, many ardent souls were ready to believe that Protestantism would, in course of time, be vanquished in its firmest strongholds, and that in Brandenburg and Pomerania Romanism would again strike a decisive and successful blow. At Rome, and at many of the German bishoprics, members of non-Catholic confessions were regarded as stray sheep from the fold, who could not be withdrawn from the care and protection of the legitimate shepherd of the flock. It was impossible that this "State within the State," this hierarchical princely power, which only rendered obedience to the State laws in so far as they acquiesced in, or subordinated themselves to, the higher mandates of the Church—this foreign element of intractable Jesuitism, could find acceptance in the Empire, without the germs of disintegration and dissolution being planted in the newly created State. In the endeavour to define more exactly the boundary lines between Church and State, to award each of the two powers its right domain, and to free civil institutions from the encroachment of the spiritual power, the Kingdom of Prussia joined hands with the German Empire. Their united efforts at last resulted in the passing of a School law (13th Feb., 1872), which placed the entire system of education in the hands of the State, abolished the former dependence of the popular schools on the Church, while at the same time claiming and legally regulating the assistance and co-operation of the clergy in religious instruction and the moral discipline of the young. In this measure of reform the Prussian Government met with the most vigorous opposition from the Polish population of the kingdom, who, out of national antipathy, resisted the introduction of instruction in the German language into their schools, and, out of Catholic religious zeal, favoured ecclesiastical supremacy. National and religious passions thus operated conjointly on the excitable temper of the priest-ridden Poles in Posen and Polish Silesia; and even among the upper classes the new law met with determined opposition from the Ultramontanes, the friends of reaction, and the orthodox High Church party. It needed the whole personal energy of the ministers Bismarck and Falk to bring the measure into operation (3rd March, 1872).

Negotiations with the Vatican.



SOON afterwards, at a meeting of the Prussian bishops at Fulda, "at the grave of St. Bonafacius," they made a declaration stating that they submitted to the new law, and promising to fulfil their duties faithfully in connection with the new schools. This was believed at Berlin to be an evidence of a more conciliatory attitude, and attempts were made to sustain the old relationships between Germany and the heads of the Church; for nothing was farther from the intention of the pious Emperor than to injure the Catholic Church in its lawful position, or to interfere in questions connected with faith and religion. When, therefore, the ambassadorship to the Papal See became vacant, it was decided to send Cardinal Hohenlohe, a highly placed cleric, who at a former time had enjoyed the favour of the Holy Father, as the Emperor's representative to Rome. This scheme was, however, rejected by the Vatican. Hohenlohe did not share the views of the dominant Jesuit party, and, moreover, retained under

his purple his national German sympathies. The Pope therefore refused to receive him as an ambassador at Rome; which was a personal affront to the Emperor. The proposal was at once brought forward in the Diet that the expenses for the Papal ambassadorship should be struck out of the budget; but Prince Bismarck opposed this motion, and recommended the path of legislation as the most rational means of terminating the conflict between Church and State.

Petitions now poured into the Diet on all sides, demanding that some check should be set on the proceedings of the Jesuits by means of legislation, and that an energetic blow should be struck at the "quarrelsome Church," which ever since the days of its establishment had endeavoured to disturb



PIUS IX.

the peaceful harmony of the two Confessions. After long negotiations with the council of the League, a law was at last passed which received the confirmation of the Emperor, on the strength of which all the Jesuit establishments were to be closed and abolished at the end of the year, and the activity of the order in every form and shape was to be suppressed within the limits of the German Empire (5th July). The introduction of this law in Prussia, Bavaria, and Hesse was the answer of the State to the promulgation of the Vatican decrees on the part of the bishops, without the permission, and partly against the express command, of the Governments, with the threat of excommunication and other violent measures against the disobedient. Within the year all the numerous settlements of the order were suppressed throughout the entire Empire, and the members compelled to find a fresh field for their activity outside Germany.



GENERAL TODLEBEN.

Power of the Government, and Episcopal Excommunications.

WHILE the State was thus driving the most zealous servants and adherents of Papal supremacy across the frontier, it showed a firm resolve to suffer the existence of no organization within the realm which should receive its commands and regulations from a foreign authority, and from another sovereignty than Emperor and Empire. It was a declaration of war from the modern State to the mediæval Papal system. The clergy were to be made sensible that it is impossible to serve two masters, and that the sovereignty of the law was absolute for all subjects alike. The Church, on the other hand, insisted on its hierarchical powers and authority over every believer, and demanded unreserved obedience to its laws. There were therefore two rival principles at work, which could not fail in their practical consequences to fall foul of one another. The bishops pronounced excommunications, and endeavoured to organize an energetic resistance to the State. The Archbishop of Cologne excommunicated four professors of Catholic theology at Bonn because they refused obedience to the Vatican decrees; and Bishop Krementz of Ermeland pronounced the ban against two priests, Michelis and Wollmann, although the Prussian law expressly forbade such a proceeding; while a similar fate also befel Döllinger, Friedrich, and other old Catholics, at the hands of the archbishop. The Catholic world was now flooded with pamphlets and speeches containing denunciations against the godless spirit of

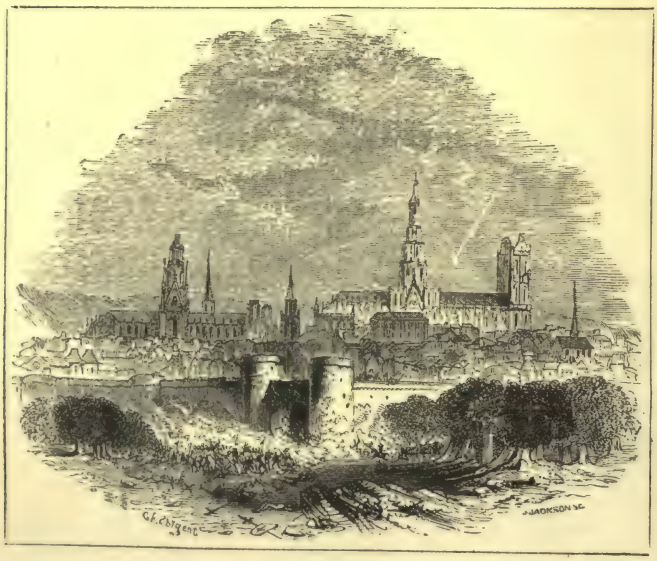


Vogel von Falckenstein, The Crown Prince, Count Moltke. Von Kamecke. Count Roon. The Emperor. Count Bismarck. Manteuffel. Prince Friedrich Karl. Grand Duke of Mecklenburg.

THE EMPEROR WILLIAM AND HIS CHIEFS.

the time, with lamentations over the oppressions of the Church and its believers. Ways and means were resorted to which had even an inkling of revolution. Archbishop Ledochowski of Posen, who was filled with national and religious hatred against Prussia, was appointed by the Pope "Primate of Posen," and was introduced in the Roman calendar among the reigning princes as the representative of the Polish kings. Every sign seemed to betoken that Rome intended to renew the old conflict with Germany. Great were the rejoicings in France over the Ultramontane alliance, which afforded the prospect of so impressive a support to the French "revenge." But however much the power of an aged and venerable institution might be extolled, there were forces opposed to it capable of rendering a more powerful resistance than its opponents in the Middle Ages—viz., modern thought with its acquired facts of science and of experience, and the Prussian State, built up on monarchical authority and a national army. The firm perception at Berlin that no half-measures would avail led to the preparation of a number of new laws and reforms regarding Church discipline, the education of priests, the institution of a Supreme Court of Justice for Church affairs, etc. The year passed, however, before these measures could be completed and placed before the Diet. But from them proceeded in course of time the celebrated "May Laws."

THE MAY LAWS.



AT the beginning of the year 1873 the quarrel between the Prussian episcopacy and the Government had reached such a pitch that the latter was compelled to seek a remedy in legislation. The point in question was the position of the State at the head of the new Empire; the authority of Prussia was at stake. When the Ultramontanes — under the guidance of the bishops—succeeded in forcing the ministry to surrender, it was expected that the Catholics abroad and the contending elements in the kingdom would unite with the political-ecclesiastical reaction to overthrow the Prussian authority. It was thus an act of necessity for the Government to have recourse to the before-mentioned legal regulations, through which the rights and liberties of citizens might be protected from any arbitrary proceeding of the hierarchy; the appointment of ecclesiastics was made dependent on the permission of the Government, and the State claimed a right to nominate to Church benefices. Most of the propositions contained

in these rules had been at all times in operation in many other States, without exciting the anger of the clergy. Now, however, it was a question of retaining the independent position which the Catholic Church had in former years exacted from the Government, and to preserve the essential conditions on which the Ultramontane hierarchy had established its mighty structure. In the House of Deputies the proposals obtained a considerable majority; but in the Upper House the Imperial Chancellor needed all his gifts of eloquence and his personal influence to overcome his clerical and feudal opponents. Finally, however, after prolonged deliberations, the new measures were carried, received the confirmation of the Emperor, and were duly proclaimed as the law of the country.

The new regulations were now strictly enforced against all those who placed the spiritual dominion above the State, treated the law of the land with contempt, or subordinated it to canonical rule. Exasperation against the Liberals was awakened and fostered by a religious fanaticism which was formerly foreign to the German nature. It was about this time that the world was suddenly startled by the intelligence of a murderous attack on the Imperial Chancellor at Kissingen (13th July). It was at first suspected that the deed was the work of the Ultramontanes; and though it subsequently transpired that the perpetrator was a half-starved journeyman joiner of Magdeburg, and was not the instrument of a conspiracy, yet it was proved, from his own admissions, that, as a member of a Catholic society, he had been incited to the deed by the infamous harangues of the leaders. The Chancellor fortunately escaped with only a graze on the wrist; but the painful event was a warning to the friends of German Imperial policy to pay more regard to the condition of men in the lower strata of society, and to counteract the religious fanaticism of their opponents by endeavouring to awaken a universal sentiment of patriotism.





AUSTRIA AND RUSSIA.

ANTAGONISM OF AUSTRIA TO THE EMPIRE OF NORTH GERMANY.—HOSTILE ELEMENT IN THE REICHSRATH.—MEETING OF THE EMPERORS AT ISCHL.—BOHEMIA AND HUNGARY.—PROCEEDINGS OF THE IMPERIAL CHANCELLOR, COUNT BEUST.—AUSTRIA DURING THE YEARS 1873 AND 1874.—GALICIA AND THE POLES.—FRANCIS JOSEPH AND COUNT ANDRASSY.—NEW LAWS TO REGULATE CHURCH AND STATE.—AUSTRO-HUNGARY.—RELATIONS WITH RUSSIA.—STATE OF THAT EMPIRE.—INTERNAL REFORMS IN RUSSIA, AND THE EXPEDITION TO KHIVA.—EXERTIONS OF THE CZAR ALEXANDER II.—RUSSIA AND TURKEY. — QUARRELS AND HOSTILITIES. — MAHMOUD PASHA. — CAPTURE OF KHIVA.—POSITION OF RUSSIA IN POLAND.

THE GERMANS AND THEIR OPPONENTS IN THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.



AMONG the Vienna court circles and the aristocracy there was shown a great tendency, on the breaking out of the war, to go hand in hand with France. Only the rapid success of the German arms and distrust of Russia prevented the concerted war alliance, and the skilful statesmen soon accommodated themselves to the new conditions. However little the establishment of the German Empire under the shield of Prussia may have excited sympathy at the Hofburg and in the Legislature at Vienna, Count Beust did not fail, in a letter to Prince Bismarck, to express his congratulations on the great historical event, and to suggest a friendly alliance between the two Empires. Similar expressions also came from the Emperor on the occasion of the triumphal festival at Berlin, although they may not have been inspired by any real feeling. All the more openly did the German population and the Liberal press exhibit a warm sympathy for the victories of their fellow-country-



COSSACKS CHARGING.

men, full well recognising that the national impetus in the neighbouring country would confer strength on them also; and just now the Austrian Germans were in greater need than ever of a moral support, for the Slav populations, with whom they were united in the same half of the Empire, were striving to attain the same dominant position which the Magyars possessed in the eastern division. Like the Reactionists in the Berlin Diet, so here also a hostile party endeavoured to suppress Germanism, German culture and knowledge, and to establish, as the supreme element in the Austrian Reichsrath, an Ultramontane, Sclavonian, and feudal coalition in place of German Liberalism. This endeavour so far succeeded that in February a ministry was formed, the leaders of which seemed to have no other merit than hostility to the new German Empire. After the new ministry had shown its intentions by the refusal of a public recognition of the German victories, it brought forward proposals, in direct contradiction to the December Constitution of the year 1867, which aimed at the extension of the autonomy of the different Cisleithan countries, at the cost of German unity, and especially at an "arrangement with the Czechs," and a greater measure of independence for the Poles in Galicia. To give the different country Diets a greater importance, and to render the provinces more independent, was the aim of the founders of "a true Austrian policy." The preponderance of the German element in the western half of the Empire was to be replaced by a federalism, in which the Slav populations, under the shield of "equality of rights," were to hold a foremost position. In vain did the Constitutional party present an address to the Emperor; the latter declared that the ministry enjoyed his full confidence; and the ministers, encouraged by success, went to even greater lengths; the Constitution of the Empire was to be reduced to a shadow, and the centre of gravity was to be removed to the provincial Diets. It was a curious coincidence that in the same month of August, when the meeting of the two Emperors at Ischl had awakened a belief in a closer alliance between the German Empire and the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, Francis Joseph should have issued those announcements which the German Constitutional party in Austria were compelled to regard as a declaration of war. They included the dissolution of the House of Deputies, of the Imperial Council, and the German provincial Diets, and ordained that the newly elected deputies should assemble on the 14th of September. Thus was the signal given for a life and death conflict to the Constitutional Germans of Austria. If the elections turned out unfavourably, the government of the Cisleithan half of the Empire would fall to the Clericals, Feudalists, and Czechs. The Austrian episcopacy had already appealed to the Emperor, asking him to endeavour to bring about the surrender of Rome to the Pope. The leaders of the German population exerted all their efforts to repel the attack on the law of the State, but patriotic exertions were of little avail against the influence which the Government, the feudal Ultramontanes, and the landed proprietors could put in the balance. The adherents of the theory of State unity were not strong enough to overpower the plans of the Government and their opponents. A new law of nationalities was already in course of deliberation at the Prague Diet, which was to establish the "historical-political individuality" of Czechdom, and to remodify the monarchy in the sense of a clerical federalism, when all the German deputies refused their co-operation, and thus paralysed legislation. The Diet was, however, now free to draw up a scheme through which Bohemia in all important matters became entirely self-governing, and its union with Austria and the Vienna council was

limited by an international treaty. Not only was a Bohemian Diet, with a Court Chancellor at the head, to regulate the business of the State and administration, and be responsible only to the Diet of the country for its transactions, but by a new election law the German population was as good as cut off from access to the Diet. The Czechs were to rule; the Germans to pay, serve, and obey. When, however, the proposals were despatched to Vienna to obtain the confirmation of the Emperor, he stopped short with the ratification of the "fundamental article," and then declared that the existing Constitution, together with the Diet, was the basis, and that all proposals of changes must depend upon this fundamental Imperial law. Thus the system of "historical-political individualities" fell to the ground. The chief share in this transaction was that of the Imperial Chancellor, Beust, who thus won more popularity and esteem from the Germans in Austria than he had ever possessed before. It therefore excited considerable astonishment when, a few days later, he was deprived of his high office and sent as ambassador to London.

Austria during the Years 1873 and 1874.



AUSTRIAN politics sustained no change through the departure of Count von Beust; for Count Andrassy, former president of the ministry in Hungary, who concerning the Slavs had the same views as Beust, became his successor in the ministry. At Pesth, Count Lonyay undertook the conduct of the ministry for Hungary; while, in Vienna, Prince Adolf Auersperg, brother of the poet, was at the head of the Government in Cisleithia. At the new elections the Liberal element once more gained ground in the provincial Diets; and though the Poles of Galicia, in the year 1872, repeated the attempt of the Bohemian nation to obtain by the same means an independent position in the Austrian Empire, yet the conviction gained ground more and more that the Hapsburg monarchy could only prosper by a strict adherence to the Constitution and by friendly relationship with Germany. Only by means of German culture could the Sclavonian portions of the population rise to a point of civilization. By the great electoral reform at the end of the year 1872, which placed the Reichsrath on the broad basis of popular representation in all districts of the country, limited the provincial Diets to the control of their own affairs, and awarded the Poles in Galicia some national privileges, the way was prepared for attaining this object; the constitutional unity of the Empire with a limitation of Federalist tendencies, was a victory for German Liberalism. The opposition of the Reactionists, Feudalists, and Federalists proved unavailing; Francis Joseph sanctioned the decrees, and Austria took her course along a freer path.

And even in religious matters the double Empire was more and more in the atmosphere of the modern State. While the Popish Church had a greater hold upon the Catholic population in its dynastic and aristocratic traditions, and its historical past, than in the German Empire—split up with its many beliefs, and imbued with Protestant culture—yet the Austrian Government was also



CZAR ALEXANDER II. AND HIS STAFF.

compelled to make serious attempts to free the State from the bonds of the Church, and to stand on its own feet; it was obliged to issue Confessional Laws, to guard the authority of the temporal power, and to free the Government from ecclesiastical influences. Since the Hungarian count Andrassy, who had once been exiled on account of his participation in the revolutionary rising in his own country, took the post of Von Beust at the head of the ministry, this tendency has never been relinquished. Through him and through the Austrian prime minister Auersperg, the reactionary and absolute elements were kept in check, and the federalist, clerical, and feudal opposition was repressed with forbearance and consideration, though with energy and decision. On account of the relationship of Austria to the German Empire, the ecclesiastical-political events taking place in the latter country could not remain without a reacting effect. In Vienna also the necessity was recog-

nised of regulating the relationships between Church and State, not as formerly through negotiations with Rome, but on the responsibility of the Government. Consequently the universities were next divested of their specially Catholic character, bounds were placed on the extension of Jesuit establishments, and Church Laws were drawn up, with the object of preserving the supremacy of the State (Nov., 1873). In spite of the agitations set on foot by the clerical party against these propositions, they were adopted at the beginning of the following year by both houses. Thus did the Austrian State also assert its independent rights, and seek to free itself from the bonds in which the Church had formerly enchained it.

Four times during the year 1873 was the attention of Europe directed to the Empire of Austrian Hungary. By the outbreak of an alarming financial crisis, a result of reckless and unbounded speculation, all classes of the people were overtaken by heavy losses, and many families were plunged into poverty and misery. These calamities could not be concealed or cured by the Industrial Exhibition (May to November, 1873), which surpassed in magnitude everything that had taken place of the same kind in London and Paris. This also formed the auspicious occasion when several members of the Imperial family of Berlin and a number of princes from Germany met in the noble capital of the Danube, and exchanged friendly greetings with the Imperial house of Austria; even King Victor Emmanuel accepted the invitation, and proved by his visit to the Imperial capital that the old hostility between the two kingdoms was at an end, and that the monarchs and their subjects, to the great vexation of the Ultramontanes, intended to make common cause in the attainment of the common aims and problems of the modern State. And as on one occasion the Sultan visited the States and capital of Western Europe, so the world now witnessed the curious spectacle of the Shah of Persia, the "king of kings," ostentatiously, and with a mighty retinue, parading through the countries of Europe, and paying longer or shorter visits to the different princes and potentates.

In January, 1874, the Confessional Laws were brought forward in the Cisleithan Diet, and, after a sharp war of words between Liberals and Ultramontanes, were victoriously carried through both houses and confirmed by the Emperor in May. The first formally abolished the Concordat, the second regulated the conditions of monastic societies, the third decided the contributions from benefices towards the expenses of Catholic worship, and the fourth laid down regulations as to the recognition of religious societies that had hitherto had no legal position. In February the Emperor Francis Joseph had undertaken a journey to St. Petersburg, an occasion from which was expected a further strengthening of the good understanding with Russia. It had since been remarked that the anti-German reactionary party, the leader of which was Archduke Albrecht, had once more gained ground at court. This was accompanied by a change in the ministry; and a pamphlet on artillery, which appeared at the beginning of the following year, under the name of Archduke John Salvator, gave such open expression to this unfriendly feeling to the Prusso-German State, that the youthful writer was punished. But however frequently the scale of public feeling rose or fell, it was evident that the Austrians as well as the Hungarians meant well to the Empire and to the house of Hapsburg.

Not the nobility, and not the Catholic Church, as such, are the supporters of the great double monarchy on the Danube; but the nations themselves gathered round the throne, and elevated, strengthened and united by Liberal

ideas, by enlightenment and culture, and by a steadfast spirit of enterprise. That this steadfast spirit of enterprise must be, above all, awakened and fostered, was proved by the great judicial drama which in the "Ofenheim proceedings" engaged general attention during the first weeks of the year 1875; for though the "Ritter von Ponteuxin," who was accused of having used the construction of the Lemberg-Ezernowitz railway for his own enrichment and the bribery of influential coadjutors, was declared not guilty by the jury, because



PRINCE MILAN.

it was found that the accusations made against him did not fall under the penal laws, yet the judicial proceedings unfolded a gloomy picture of the lax morality and want of principle produced by greedy and avaricious speculations in the higher circles of society. From this and similar events the painful consciousness was forced upon people that there were grave delinquencies in connection with the industrial and trading world; that justice, honour, and morality among a large portion of the higher circle of society rested on weak foundations; and that it was necessary that there should be

guarantees against the swindling of speculators, if shaken credit was to be restored in trading and financial circles, if faith and reliance were to be reinstated in the public mind, and the middle and lower classes of the people protected and preserved from falsehood and deception.

Internal Reforms in Russia, and the Expedition to Khiva.

THE friendly temper of the Emperor Alexander to Prussia had been a principal reason why the Franco-German war had not extended to a general European conflict. This was recognised by the Emperor William, when he added to the telegram, regarding the peace preliminaries, to his



PRINCE MOSSALSKY.

Imperial nephew at St. Petersburg, the following words : "Prussia will never forget that she owes it to you that the war has not assumed the most extreme dimensions." This harmonious feeling between the chiefs of the two great States continued even after the war, and received a more emphatic expression at the festival of the order of St. George, held in the Russian capital, at which Prince Friedrich Karl and the leaders of the Prusso-German armies were present (Dec., 1871). On this occasion the Emperor Alexander expressed such warm sympathy towards the "oldest knights of the order," the Emperor William and the generals present, that the festival of the order was transformed into a German ceremony of triumph.

With Austria, also, the relationships of the St. Petersburg Cabinet were more friendly in course of time. The meeting of the three monarchs at Berlin,

which has been before referred to, was to give the world a proof of the unanimity prevailing between the three Great Powers on all important questions. But this sentiment of the Emperor Alexander's met with no response, either from the nation or the aristocracy; on the contrary, the Russian population not unfrequently gave vent, even in Russia, to the feelings of distrust and jealousy with which most of the neighbouring peoples were filled. The



SULTAN ABDUL HAMID II.

Sclavonian element would not acknowledge the supremacy of the German element. As the Emperor Nicholas had once endeavoured, by an agressive policy, to procure for the Empire of the Czar a kind of supremacy in Europe, so the Emperor Alexander II. now endeavoured, by great internal reforms, to elevate Russia to the height of other civilized nations, and, as it were, unite his immense Empire with the rest of Europe. While the liberation of the serfs was in progress, and the legislative labours rendered necessary by

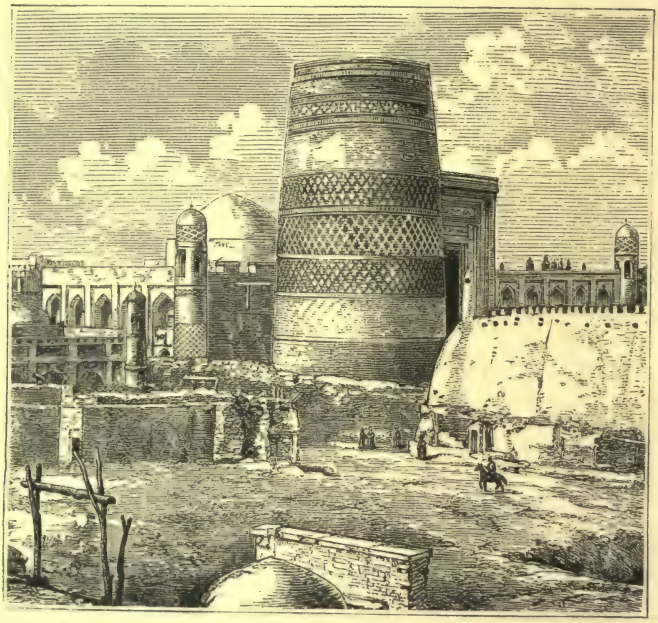
the great change in the social and agrarian conditions were still further extended, a comprehensive military reform was at the same time commenced. Railways were increased and completed for economical and military aims; a reform of the system of taxation was set on foot, by which freedom from taxation of privileged individuals was to be abolished, and a greater equality effected between all classes; and considerable attention was devoted to the improvement of the judicature and legislature, the elevation of trade, industry, popular enlightenment, and the whole system of education. From the Emperor Alexander II. emanated also the philanthropic idea of lessening the destructive effects of war, in the murderous conflicts of States, by an international law of war; and with this object a Congress of statesmen and military plenipotentiaries, held at Brussels, endeavoured to establish the fundamental lines on which the scheme should be based; and although the idea was not entirely carried out, yet to the Russian Emperor belonged the renown of having instigated a humane work, that could not fail to bring forth happy results.

Russia's Progress in the East.



WHILE Russia was pursuing a policy of peace and of international confidence and reliance in the West, its attention was at the same time directed towards the East. The good understanding which the Grand Vizier, Mahmoud Pasha, sought to establish with the court was not destroyed even after the sudden overthrow of that statesman; but the two Governments, on the contrary, pursued a similar policy in the "Bulgarian Church Question." When the Sultan decided, in spite of the opposition of the patriarch of Constantinople, to grant the Bulgarians an independent hierarchy, with an Exarch at the head, as the nation had long desired, Russia, in the dispute which then broke out, decided in favour of the independent Bulgarian Church Constitution, though by so doing it forfeited or weakened the sympathies of the Greek patriarchate, and of the whole Greek-Catholic population of the East. An important extension of territory was gained by Russia in the far East, where it undertook the conquest of the Khanate of Khiva, the last remaining independent power of Turkestan. On the occasion of a frontier skirmish, the Khan of the kingdom of Khiva, situated south of Lake Aral in the Oxus territory, took some Russian subjects prisoners, and refused to surrender them. This Russia declared to be a *casus belli*. By the subjection of the Prince under the supremacy of the Czar, and the development of the Russian military power, awe and terror were to be instilled into the barbarian chiefs of Central Asia, and at the same time the Empire was to be extended on the south. With this object the Imperial Government endeavoured next to enter into an understanding with England, that the strengthening and extension of Russian

authority in that district, by which her East Indian possessions might be endangered, might not excite suspicion on the part of England. Count Schuvaloff, therefore, was despatched on a diplomatic mission to convince the English Government that British interests in India would not be endangered by the expedition to Khiva about to be undertaken; that the intention was only to prevent rapacious frontier feuds, to prove to the barbarians that Russia's power and honour could not be injured with impunity, and that conquest and annexation were quite out of the question. Though the British Government raised no objection to a military intervention of the Muscovite Empire in Central Asia, yet it was less from confidence in the pretended peaceful aims of Russia than from the consciousness that it also was extending its Indian Empire on the north and west, sometimes by treaties with native princes, sometimes by force of arms, but always without consulting the



KHIVA.

other Powers. Nevertheless, England at once concluded an alliance with the Khan of Afghanistan, and placed him in a pecuniary position to protect his country from any possible attack. After a frontier line had been drawn up with regard to the scene of action, the expedition to Khiva was undertaken in the spring and summer, under the chief command of General Kaufmann. From April to June the divisions of the army marched amid incredible hardships and difficulties through the broad desert country to the capital. Clouds of sand, from which no tent offered protection; barren deserts without tree or shrub, and a burning heat, besides want of drinkable water: these and other privations and obstacles beset the Russian army and impeded its march. All these trials, to which were added attacks and surprises on the part of the natives, were stolidly endured by the hardy Russian soldier. When the different divisions had united before Khiva, the siege of the town, which was

defended by 20,000 Turkomans, commenced. After a vigorous bombardment it was compelled to surrender, and on the 10th of June General Kaufmann made his victorious entry. The Khan had escaped, but he was soon brought back, and accepted the conditions of peace which were imposed on him;—to pay a war contribution of two million roubles, to cede all the country on the right bank of the Amu-Darja to the Russian Empire, and, as ruler of the remaining territory of Khiva, to assume a relationship towards the Czar which would be vassalage in all but name. These conditions went far beyond the bounds of a chastisement such as Russia had represented to the British Government that she was about to inflict, and increased in a high degree the powerful position of Russia in Central Asia. It was no wonder that England regarded with some consternation these results of the Russian war policy. Since then, both Governments have endeavoured to win over to their interests, by means of embassies, treaties, and subsidies, the independent populations which form a girdle of fortifications between both kingdoms.

More recently the world has been once more reminded of the past history of Russia. On the 18th January, 1874, Count Berg died, who had once, as Governor of Poland, so energetically repressed the insurrection at Warsaw; and a year later the newspapers recorded the death of the commander-in-chief, Wysocky, who had paid the penalty for his participation in the Polish revolution, from the year 1830, by a long banishment in Siberia, until, broken by sufferings and privations, he was granted his liberty, and allowed to return home. He spent the remainder of his days in the little Polish town of Warta, where he died on the 8th January, 1875.



ENGLAND AND HER PROGRESS; HOLLAND.

THE GLADSTONE MINISTRY.—POLICY OF NEUTRALITY.—MINISTERIAL TASKS AND DIFFICULTIES.—D'ISRAELI AND THE CONSERVATIVE PARTY.—THE ASHANTEE WAR AND ENGLAND'S COLONIAL POLICY.—COOMASSIE.—LIVINGSTONE AND AFRICAN EXPLORATION.—THE DUTCH IN SUMATRA.—HOLLAND'S COLONIAL WAR—TRIUMPH OF THE DUTCH.

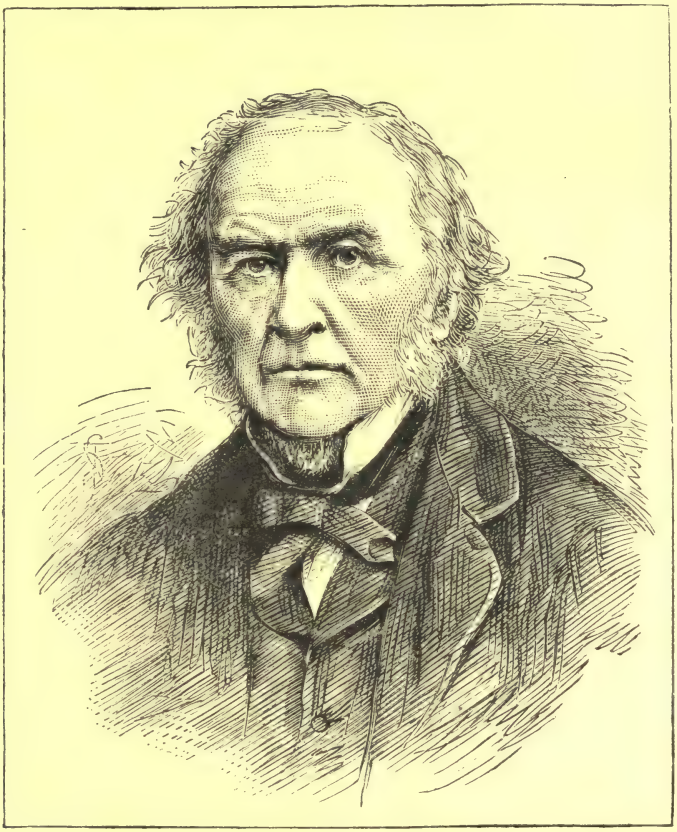
ENGLAND UNDER THE GLADSTONE MINISTRY.



ST. DUNSTAN'S CHURCH.

AT the beginning of the present century England stood in the first rank among the military powers. But the policy of intervention has been given up by the British people; with the exception of the Crimean war of 1854–1856, the Government has held aloof from the warlike complications of Europe. Successive administrations have in general rigidly maintained neutrality, even where the temptations to intervention were strongest. English sympathies did not prevent the Danes from losing Schleswig-Holstein; Russia availed herself of the Franco-German war to free herself in a peremptory fashion from some conditions of the Peace of Paris; the mediation of the London Cabinet to procure more favourable peace conditions for the French produced no result; and sympathy with the Southern States in the American civil war did not induce England to break her neutrality and embroil herself with the Government at Washington. In the Alabama question the English had paid a compensation of 15,500,000 dollars, and had recognised the international principle, that "every neutral government was bound to prevent the equip-

ment and escape of cruisers, and not to allow a belligerent power to use its harbours as the scene of operations, or for the renewal or increase of military accoutrements, arms," etc. In the frontier dispute also, with regard to the San Juan island, the English demands were referred to the arbitration of the German Emperor. In military matters it was frankly recognised that the



GLADSTONE.

English army was in some respects behind the organization of the continental system ; accordingly, the abolition of purchase in the army was carried in the face of the opposition of the House of Lords. The rapid progress of Russia in Central Asia, and the increasing debility of the "sick man" of the Bosphorus, which constantly brought forward the Eastern question, threatened danger and discord, which might easily involve England in a conflict. While since the Alabama question, a certain national jealousy had prevailed towards North America ; a similar feeling had existed since the Crimean war towards Russia. The cause probably lay in the fact of the extraordinarily reserved attitude of the English ministry with regard to the Brussels Conference for establishing an international law of war. Confiding in her naval power, in which England justly recognised the foundation of her greatness and supremacy, and by her insular position more protected than continental states from hostile invasions and occupations, the British island Empire was

not inclined to allow herself to be bound by resolutions, which might interfere with the movements of her forces and the free disposition of her navy. With a recognition of the humane temper and aims by which the Emperor Alexander II. was actuated in the organisation of the Congress, the London Cabinet declined, after the close of the Congress, any further participation in the affair



TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN.

Ministerial Tasks and Difficulties.

BUT however much the Liberal ministry of Mr. Gladstone endeavoured to keep itself aloof from continental transactions, the great European family is so intimately connected by the same vital interests, that the important questions of civilization which affect the position of continental States, cannot fail to make an impression on this side of the Channel also. In England it was a principle, proved by experience, that no honourable arrangement on the basis of justice and fair-dealing could be entered into with the Roman hierarchy, which, in its boundless love of power, would be satisfied only with the submission of every resisting element. In vain did the Government hope to procure a peaceful condition among the Catholics in Ireland by the Disestablishment of the English Church in that country. When Mr. Gladstone, to whom was ascribed a secret sympathy with the Catholic Church, brought forward a proposal for a reform in the Dublin University, by which many diabilities of the Catholics would be abolished, and the High Church colleges gradually dissolved, he experienced even from the Roman Catholic party the most intense opposition, the bill was thrown out, and in March, 1873, a minsterial crisis was brought on, which lasted for some time.

But the more Ultramontanism strove to gain ground in England, the more did there spring up in the heart of the nation and among the citizen class,

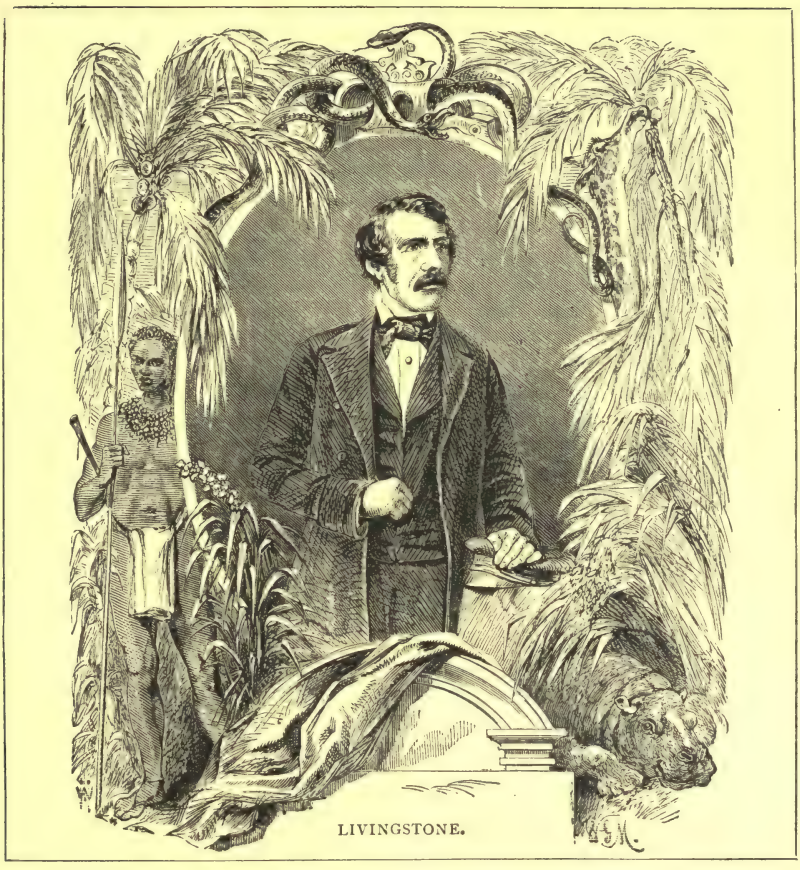
the old national hatred and opposition to popery and Jesuitism. The ecclesiastical and religious events in Germany met with the greatest sympathy among the English people; the old Liberal, Lord John Russell, summoned a meeting in January, 1874, to express to the German Emperor the admiration of the English people for his manly letter to the Pope, and to the German people the sympathies of the English in their struggle with Ultramontanism. With such conditions and sentiments prevailing, Gladstone's conciliatory policy was no longer tenable. The Tories, now called Conservatives, who, though they had been accused of manifesting indifference towards the progress of social life, the interests of the labouring population, and social questions, remained courageously steadfast to the religious theories and ideas brought about by the Reformation, continued to gain ground in public opinion, so that a speedy change of ministry seemed imminent. In vain did Mr. Gladstone appeal once more to the nation. He dissolved Parliament on experiencing a defeat on a subordinate question, and there was a general election; when the majority was shown to be in favour of the opposite party, nothing remained to the old political champion, but to resign his office. His resignation was accepted by the Queen, who commissioned the leader of the Tories, the illustrious statesman and author, Benjamin d'Israeli, with the formation of a new ministry for his policy of "Conservative reaction." Gladstone withdrew for a time into the seclusion of private life, and devoted his leisure to the study of Church and religious questions; and in order to pursue his literary labours more freely and unreservedly, he for a time relinquished the leadership of the Liberal party in Parliament. The writings in which this scholarly man handled the religious questions of the time, and did battle both with the English Ritualists and the Vatican, have proved that he did not, as his opponents have maintained, sympathize with Ultramontanism; his sharp attacks on the Papists caused much excitement in Roman Catholic circles, and elicited a host of counter effusions. Thus in England also was kindled the great conflict between liberty of conscience and the infallibility of the Church, between science and authority, between the use and sacrifice of reason, which kept the German people in a continual intellectual ferment.

The Ashantee War, and England's Colonial Policy.



In the maintenance of her navy and in her colonial system, England remained true to the traditional policy through which she had risen to be the greatest and most powerful naval and commercial nation. As on a previous occasion in Abyssinia, so in the year 1873 did she assert her supreme authority, by force of arms, against the native population of Ashantee. This rich coast country, which stretches north from the Gulf of Guinea to Sierra Leone, and the central point of which forms the Gold Coast, had, ever since the voyages of discovery of the Portuguese, been the centre of an energetic trading system; with this object different Nationalities had established settlements, and had protected their factories by forts and entrenchments, in the neighbourhood of the sea,—among them were, Dutch, Portuguese, Danes, and English. Gold dust, ivory, palm oil, and other products of the torrid zone were purchased from the natives, and here had been procured in former years

the negroes who worked as slaves in the plantations of the white population in the West Indies and the States of the American continent. The neighbouring negro tribes, among whom the savage, warlike Ashantees, with their capital Coomassie, held the first place, stood in a relationship of vassalage to the Europeans, who, by their coast fortifications and military superiority, knew how to maintain their supremacy. In the course of the year the English obtained considerable power on the Gold Coast, and when Holland, by the treaty of the 5th April, 1872, ceded her former possessions to the Government of Great Britain, in return for which the latter renounced her protectorate in Sumatra, the whole of the Gold Coast was in her hands. Among these possessions surrendered by Holland to the English, was Fort Elmina, which was claimed by the Ashantee king, Koffi Kalkalli. Starting with hostile sallies, there now developed a war, at first between the Ashantees and the neighbouring tribe of Fantees, who were under English protection, but afterwards with the English themselves. The leader of the Ashantees, Atoschiempon, filled with a thirst for revenge on account of a former imprisonment, invaded the British territory with a large army partly armed with English muskets, aided by the inhabitants of Elmina, who were discontented with the change of government resulting from the treaty of exchange between the Dutch and English. The English Government then decided to offer a vigorous defence of their threatened dominion in West Africa, and to drive back further into the interior the wild Ashantees, who had always shown themselves the bitterest enemies to the European settlements. Consequently large forces, provided with excellent ammunition, set out under the new governor and commander, Sir Garnet Wolseley, to the West African Coast. Elmina was chastised by a bombardment for its equivocal attitude. The savage Ashantees soon found themselves vanquished by the European art of war in a number of conflicts, weakened as they were by disease, exposure, and want of provisions, and finally were compelled to evacuate the territory of the Protectorate, and retire to Coomassie. To conquer this town and attack the king in the heart of his country and people was now the aim of the English commander, and it was carried out at the beginning of the new year (Jan. 1874). In spite of the many obstacles offered by the thickly wooded country, the march was undertaken, and with the aid of the Fantees, was successfully accomplished. Vainly did King Koffi Kalkalli, who was crafty as he was cruel, endeavour to keep back the hostile army from further advances by means of peace negotiations, carried on by a captured missionary, that he might gain time for further preparations for defence. Wolseley did not allow himself to be deterred from his aim, and without entirely rejecting the negotiations, he set out on his march. Soon, however, he met with hostile bands, who, hidden by trees, bushes, and jungle, turned their murderous fire on the Europeans, and rendered the greatest caution necessary in advancing. At the beginning of February, Wolseley reached the capital, Coomassie, which was left desolate by the flight of the inhabitants, who had partly set it on fire before escaping. The king also had taken flight; he recognised, however, the impossibility of a continuance of the war, as all the neighbouring tribes were on the side of the Europeans. When therefore Garnet Wolseley had again arrived at Cape Coast Castle with the main army, he concluded a treaty with General Glover, who had remained behind at Coomassie, in which he renounced all his claims to the territory of the British protectorate, and engaged to pay 50,000 ounces of gold as war indemnity (19th Feb.). The English also compelled the chieftain to promise that he would use every effort to put down the hideous custom of human sacrifice, the traces and evidences of which had filled the new-comers with horror.



LIVINGSTONE.

Livingstone, and African Exploration.



A BRILLIANT reception on his return to England bore witness to the nation's gratitude to the general and his troops, while on the East Coast of Africa, the English navy and humanity celebrated a mutual victory. At Zanzibar an active slave-trade had been carried on; and the English government despatched an embassy to the Sultan, to induce him to abolish the dishonourable traffic. When, however, the latter showed no inclination to discontinue the lucrative trade in deference to the philanthropic ideas of England, and the ambassadors

had to retire without having accomplished anything, Admiral Cumming received commands to sail from Bombay with some ships of war, and land on the coasts of Zanzibar, and convice the Sultan in a practical manner of his mistake. In fact the appearance of the squadron made such an impression on the mind of the barbarian chief, that he at once accepted the conditions which he had previously rejected (June, 1873). Even on the same day the slave market at Zanzibar was closed. Thither, a few months later, was brought the corpse of the bold and unwearied African traveller, David Livingstone, which was afterwards taken home to be interred in his native soil. Penetrating from the east coast into the unknown country, Livingstone had devoted many years to the exploration of the south-east African lake and mountain districts, in order to ascertain the source of the Nile, and had finally perished, struck down by the deadly climate and by exhaustion, in the marshy country of Moira Achuito, north of the river Chambeze and Lake Bangweolo (4th May, 1873),—a heroic-minded man, who devoted his life to open up the south of Central Africa to the intercourse and the humane civilization of Europe.

Colonial policy is pre-eminently England's field of honour. Whatever party may be at the helm of the State, in the foreign possessions, and especially in the Anglo-Indian Empire, there always prevails the same judicious perception, the same practical experience in the administration, and throughout the whole of public life. With wonderful judgment and energy a threatening famine was warded off from India in the year 1874, when, had not the necessary supplies of provisions from far and near been forthcoming at the right time, millions would have perished in the most miserable manner.

THE DUTCH IN SUMATRA.



THE exchange treaty between Holland and England not only involved the British Empire in a war with native races, it also originated a war between the Dutch Government and the Sultan of Atchin at Sumatra. For many years the aim of the Dutch had been the completion of their colonial territory in the Indian Archipelago, and their efforts had been especially directed to the complete possession of the island of Sumatra. The colonial policy of Great Britain, always jealous of any foreign dominion in the eastern Asiatic seas, had endeavoured to interpose obstacles in the way of the extension of the Dutch conquests, and the Anglo-Indian Government had concluded a treaty with the ruler of the still independent kingdom of Atchin in the north-west of that island, through which the powerful insular imperialism of the English protectorate was guarded. Confiding in the alliance of the great Power, the Sultan carried on piracy and kidnapping, like the former Corsair chiefs of North Africa, and inflicted great injury on the Dutch trading and colonial policy. When therefore Holland obtained, by the before-mentioned treaty, which however raised a violent dispute in the House of Deputies, the

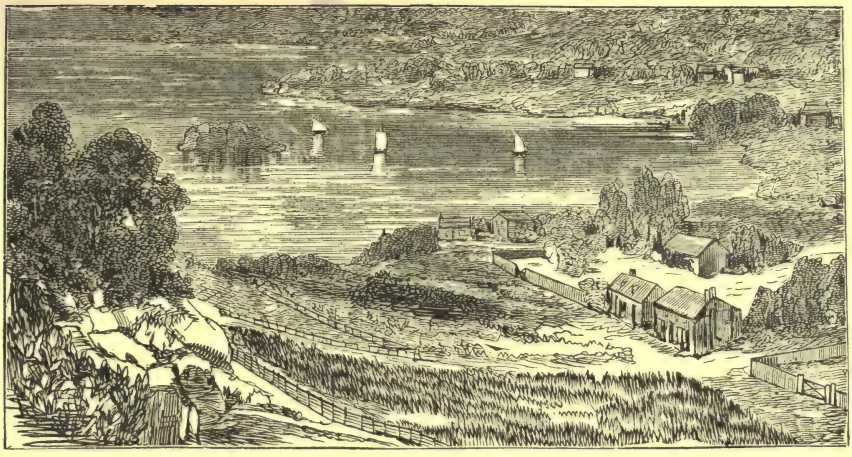


PALACE OF TCHERAGAN, CONSTANTINOPLE.

"free hand" over Sumatra, the Government commenced energetic measures against piracy. Their representations were however disregarded by the Sultan, and when the Netherlands declared war against the barbarian (25th March, 1873), the latter looked out for foreign aid, and prepared for defence. The war had almost a religious aspect. The Dutch Government in India had placed difficulties in the way of the pilgrimages of the natives to Mecca, because the returning pilgrims (Hadjis) availed themselves of the veneration by which they were regarded for this religious observance by the Mohammedan population, in endeavouring to excite fanaticism against the Christians. The Sultan therefore applied first of all to the Porte; but the Great Turk of the Bosphorus could render no effectual aid, and his efforts of mediation made no impression. On the other hand, the Dutch were afraid that the Government in Washington, to which the Sultan equally applied, might have less regard to religious than to political and commercial interests, and might make use of the complications in the East-Indian colony for their own advantage. It was therefore decided to take the initiative, and if possible to bring about a speedy decision, which should leave no room for foreign intervention. But the Dutch estimated too meanly the the powers of resistance possessed by their antagonist. When they attacked the fortified mosque, the "Missigit," which serves the principal fortress as a bulwark, with insufficient forces (25th December), they were repulsed with losses,—a misfortune which afforded an opportunity at the Hague for a violent attack on the Liberal ministry.

At the beginning of the following year, when considerable reinforcements had arrived under General Van Swieten, the war assumed another aspect. The "Missigit" was conquered by the Dutch, after the bravest fighting, and the main fortress was then subjected to a close siege, aided by the fleet from the sea. The Atchinese were not long able to resist these energetic attacks. The Sultan Panglima Polim withdrew with his army into the interior of the country, in order to continue the struggle there with greater security, whereupon the Dutch took possession of the fortress (14th January, 1879). After the taking of the capital, the coast towns fell in rapid succession into the hands of the victors. The fleet captured Pedir, the most powerful vassal state of Atchin, whose Radja had come, with his combined forces, to the assistance of his son-in-law the Sultan; the remaining chiefs, or town governors of the coast and the two banks of the Atchin river also submitted, and promised to recognise the King of the Netherlands and his representative as their masters, to renounce piracy and the slave trade, and to carry out several reforms. The Sultan also was to be secured a peaceful continuance of his supremacy, if he would recognise the Dutch sovereignty, and consent to the other stipulations. Panglima Polim, however, persisted in his resistance; but Van Swieten, who, with the capture of the coast-towns, regarded his task as ended, returned through Java to his own country. The command of the garrison troops fell to Colonel Pol.

With the possession of the coast-towns, the Dutch had now brought the war to a successful close. The extension of their supremacy throughout the whole island of Sumatra, an important increase of their colonial power, is therefore regarded as a matter of certainty.



FRANCE: THE THIRD REPUBLIC.

THIERS, AND THE VARIOUS POLITICAL PARTIES.—TRIUMPH OF THE MODERATE REPUBLICANS.—THE COMTE DE CHAMBORD.—"HENRI V."—HIS PROCLAMATION.—THIERS' LABOURS AT THE HEAD OF THE REPUBLIC.—PUBLIC EDUCATION AND THE CLERICAL PARTY.—THE NEW ARMY.—OPPOSITION TO THIERS AND HIS MEASURES.—THE "THIRTY CHINESE."—BAZAINE.—PRESIDENCY OF MARSHAL MACMAHON.—QUARRELS AT LYONS.—THE NAPOLEONIC PARTY.

THIERS, AND THE POSITION OF PARTIES.



THE French National Assembly at Versailles, which placed the aged, but still keen-sighted and active Thiers at the head of the Government, afforded, even after the repression of the Commune, a representation of the confusion and indecision in which the kingdom was plunged by the war and the catastrophe of Sedan. The Republican form of government, which had been accepted in an emergency, possessed the sympathies neither of the whole of the Assembly nor of the whole nation; on the other hand, all the systems which had prevailed in France during the century, had their adherents and representatives, viz. Legitimists, Bonapartists, Orleanists, and Republicans of different shades. People agreed to the formation of a Republic, because, as Thiers felt, this form of government separated the French the least. But the Republic of M. Thiers was regarded, both by the Monarchists and the Jacobins of the Left, as only provisional, from which past conditions might be once more developed, either Bourbon Royalism, in absolute or constitutional form, or the Napoleonic Empire, with its "legends" of warlike renown, or the Convention of the year 1793, and the principles of liberty, equality, and democracy. If this divergence of opinion was not at first so glaringly apparent if the National Assembly still gave some support to Thiers and his

Republican ministry, this was only through the consciousness of the impossibility of establishing any other kind of government at the moment. The German armies still remained on French soil, pending the payment of the costs of the war; and the astute Chief of the Executive power possessed moderation enough to pacify the passions of the people, to restrain their hatred of the Germans, which was so boldly exhibited in the streets and in the courts of justice, and to quiet the clamour for a war of revenge.

The position of parties at home was confused and distracted, and a disturbance of the existing order could only lead to anarchy and civil war.

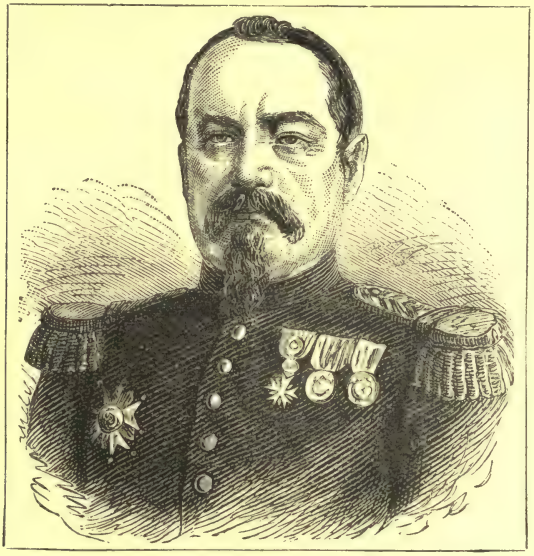


LORD JOHN (AFTERWARDS EARL) RUSSELL.

Thiers was thus the indispensable man of the moment, and so much was he himself impressed by consciousness of this fact, that he many times, by the threat of resignation, brought the opposing elements in the Assembly to harmony and compliance. This occurred even during the siege of Paris, when in conflict with the Commune. In the Assembly there was shown an inclination to moderate or break through the sharp centralization of the government, and to procure some autonomy for the provinces and towns. When, therefore, a new scheme was discussed, a large part of the Assembly demanded that the mayors should not, as formerly, be appointed by the Government, but be elected by the town councils. Only with difficulty was Thiers able to effect a compromise, on the strength of which the Government was permitted the right of appointment for all towns, numbering over twenty thousand (14th April, 1871). In the elections for the councils the Moderate Republicans proved triumphant. With a supple dexterity, Thiers knew how to steer between the Democratic-Republican party and the Monarchists. When Gambetta endeavoured to establish a "league of Republican towns," the attempt was forbidden as illegal; and when the decree of banishment against the Bourbons and Orleans

princes was set aside, and the latter returned to France, Thiers knew how to postpone the entrance of the Duc d'Aumale and the Prince de Joinville, who had been elected deputies, into the National Assembly at least until the end of the year.

In October, D'Aumale was elected President of the General Council of Oise—an influential position, since this body was independent of the Prefects. Thiers was able to grant the son and grandson of Louis Philippe, whose minister he had once been, this satisfaction, though the brilliant success of the National Loan, and the after elections to the Versailles Assembly, sufficiently confirmed his authority. By means of the high offers for a share in the loan, which gave token of the inexhaustible wealth of the nation, as



MARSHAL BAZAINE.

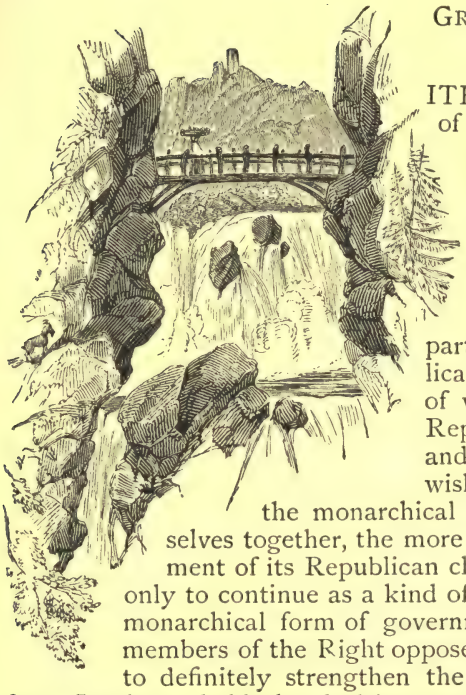
well as of the unweakened credit of France in foreign countries, Thiers was placed in a position to hasten the paying off of the war indemnity, and the consequent evacuation of the country by the army of occupation, and to restore to order the confused finances and State expenditure. Even his opponents contributed by their immoderation to the increase of his authority and influential position. The manifesto of the Comte de Chambord, in which he declared to his Legitimist followers that he had only to return with the white banner, and a petition of the bishops, that France, in conjunction with the other powers, would give back to the head of the Church his sovereign power, bore witness to the incredible blindness of a party whose glance was only turned back upon the past, and brought all reasonable and practical men to Thiers' side. And although he was not able to repress the Opposition in the National Assembly and among the Ultramontane clergy, and was compelled to dismiss Jules Favre from the Ministry, and to prepare for the loudly demanded dissolution of the national guard, yet he had the triumph of being proclaimed "President of the French Republic" during the last days of August; and thus the vague form of government and the veiled authority were brought into the light of publicity.

The Republic of M. Thiers.

BUT the opposition against Thiers in the National Assembly was in no way decreasing; the Monarchists on the Right were obstinately opposed to the President on all important questions, and by their hostile attitude urged him more and more towards the Republicans of the Left. Thus the French Government was wanting in the harmonious moral strength which would have facilitated a fundamental restoration of the State, and procured a remedy for ills and imperfections by thorough legislative reforms; it became a prey to vacillation, and lost strength in passionate party conflict. Thiers had aimed, next to the liberation of the garrisoned provinces from the German troops of occupation, at the reorganization of the French army. Yet he could not bring himself to the decision of enforcing in all its entirety, and actually realizing, the principle of general armed service, such as had raised Prussia from a state of repression to one of moral regeneration. Universal military service in France was, it is true, adopted in name, and the army was increased to an immense extent, but under such conditions and limitations, that the richer and more educated classes could exempt themselves from service in the army; and thus the active forces, as before, consisted of professional soldiers. And when the Minister for Education, Jules Simon, introduced an educational law, based on Liberal principles, he experienced on the part of the clergy and their champion, Bishop Dupanloup, such violent opposition, that the Government dropped the measure.

In order to place the army in the condition which Thiers desired, an increase in the Military Budget was rendered necessary, and consequently an increase in the State revenues. For this purpose a general income-tax would have been the most suitable means; but out of consideration for the upper classes, to whom this taxation was as unacceptable as the military service, Thiers did not adopt this method, but proposed, with other small means, to impose a tax on raw materials, and, consequently, bring about a return to the old system of protection, the abolition of which had been one of the few benefits conferred on the nation by Bonapartist Imperialism. In the National Assembly there arose such intense opposition against this proposal, and such excited debates on the part of the Left, that Thiers and the whole ministry sent in their resignation. No successor could, however, be agreed upon; therefore the National Assembly, on the motion of Batbie, declared that the unfavourable voting on the financial question was no proof of want of confidence towards the head of the Government, and induced the President, by appealing to his patriotism, to alter his determination. Soon afterwards, by the union of the Government party and the Left, the proposals for taxation were carried with certain modifications, and the recognition of existing commercial treaties was adopted (July, 1872). The organization of the army, concerning which for six months long the most violent debates had been held, was now introduced in accordance with the plan of the Chief of the Executive, who personally took a most eager share in the transactions. An active army, with five years' service, was to be added to a "territorial army," a kind of militia. And so great were the demands made on that portion of the nation capable of bearing arms, that the French army surpassed every other in number.

Thiers was now able to look back on his efforts with satisfaction. In cheerful spirits he set out in August for Trouville, to superintend, together with the war minister, Cissey, some experiments with the new cannon.



Growing Opposition Against Thiers.

HITHERTO the position of the President of the National Assembly was not improved. Under the pressure of events the nation had chosen representatives who had procured the ardently-longed-for peace. It was soon evident, however, that the deputies were in no way the true representatives of the whole nation, or even of the larger part of it. In the after elections Republicans principally gained the majority of votes, a proof that the "Conservative Republic," which Thiers desired to organize and establish, was in accordance with the wishes of the French people. But the more the monarchical elements combined and allied themselves together, the more did they seek to divest the Government of its Republican character; the existing arrangement was only to continue as a kind of interim until the establishment of a monarchical form of government should be possible; therefore the members of the Right opposed all schemes which seemed calculated to definitely strengthen the Republic. The Left, also, where the fiery Gambetta held the decisive word, was in no way contented with the working of a Conservative Republic; they demanded that the Assembly should pronounce its dissolution, and order new elections, as it had only been summoned to conclude peace, and that after the accomplishment of this task it was bound to give back to the nation its mandate, and that any continuance of power would be a usurpation. With the object of rousing public opinion on the question, Gambetta undertook several tours throughout the country. This political agitation of the former Dictator was regarded as an offence to the Monarchists; and as Thiers, although he did not favour the Republican's extravagance and excesses, yet failed to repress them with his entire energy, the breach between himself and the Right became wider. The old Orleanist, Changarnier, declared his conviction in the public Assembly that the Provisional Government "did not show sufficient firmness towards this 'League of Destruction.'" Gambetta was ironically termed the "Dauphin." The Centre, divided into Right and Left, was certainly as a rule on the side of the Government; but, among its ranks even, there often prevailed difference of opinion on the most important questions. Among such party divisions no sound State life could take root; the President had not the right to dissolve the Assembly which had elected him, and at the same time he was not able to bring it to decisions which might have given the Constitution a decided stamp of Republicanism. And while the Left clamoured for dissolution and a fresh election, the majority sought to prolong their power indefinitely, the former hoping and the latter fearing that a fresh general election would bring democracy triumphant reinforcements. Neither a measure for the establishment of a kind of First Chamber, nor one for a more exact definition as to the

position of the President and responsibility of the Ministers, could be carried ; even the three times proffered resignation of the head of the Government had no effect—it remained the "Conservative Republic," which Thiers declared to the Assembly on its re-assembling, amid very divided expressions of feeling (13th Nov., 1873). Thus, without an appointed watchword, and without security for disasters in the unknown future, all parties steered forward to meet their fate. A newly-elected "committee of thirty," which was to draw up proposals for the future Constitution, or deliberate on "constitutional reforms," obtained, on account of its stationary attitude, the nickname of the "thirty Chinese." Indisputable as were the high services which Thiers had rendered to France, by the foundation of public order and authority, the creation of a regular army, and the restoration of a solid financial system, yet all these services met with no recognition in the face of the party jealousy and political passions prevailing among the people's representatives of Versailles. More and more did the Royalist reaction gain ground, and, aided by the priests and national hatred and prejudice, endeavoured to bring about the destruction of its opponents. Against the Radicals and Liberals, among whom even the Voltairean Thiers was included, superstition and fanaticism were let loose, and against the Bonapartists was directed the terrorism of court martials. The French could not rest with the thought that their military supremacy had been broken by the superiority of the Prusso-German arms ; their defeats could only have proceeded from the treachery or incapacity of their leaders. To this national prejudice the Government decided to bow, and to offer a sacrifice to the popular passion. And thus the world beheld the lamentable spectacle of the commanders who had surrendered the French fortresses to the enemy, being subjected to a trial of court-martial under the presidency of Marshal Baraguay d'Hilliers, and the majority of them, on account of their proved incapacity or weakness, deprived of their military honours, at a moment when all had cause to reproach themselves and to endeavour to raise up a new structure on the ruins of the past, instead of reviling their past misfortune and exposing the faults of each other. Even Uhrich, the once celebrated commander of Strasbourg, whose name had been given to a street in Paris, was brought under the censure of the court-martial. But the chief blow fell upon the commander-in-chief of Metz, Marshal Bazaine, to whose "treachery" the whole misfortune of France was attributed. For months he was retained a prisoner at Versailles, while preparations were made for the great court-martial spectacle, which, in the following year, took place under the presidency of the Duc d'Aumale.

MacMahon Elected as President.



BUT before the great trial of Bazaine was decided, for which hundreds of witnesses were called, and towards which the attention of Europe was directed for many weeks, the fate of President Thiers was fulfilled. It was a strange coincidence that at the same time that Thiers, by a hasty payment of the still remaining debt to the German Empire, and by a fresh treaty as to the withdrawal of the troops of occupation, stood higher than ever in the favour of the French nation, his authority continued to diminish in the Versailles Assembly; and the Opposition gained ground, not only in the extreme Right and Left, but even in the Centre. Since the death of the Emperor Napoleon III. at his English home, in exile, in consequence of a painful operation, the adherents of the old monarchy developed a greater activity than before. Although widely divergent in their aims and aspirations, some desiring to offer the crown to the Comte de Chambord, others agitating in favour of the Orleans princes, and another party, with Rouher at its head, proposing as President the youthful Napoleon, who was now approaching his majority—they were all agreed on one point—to prevent the declaration of the Republic as a permanent form of Government in France by every means in their power. The Republican form of constitution, which circumstances and the political situation had forced upon them, might continue indefinitely as a provisional government, and in the meantime the idea of a Monarchy would be strengthened and increased until some opportunity favoured or rendered possible a dynastic restoration. We know now, however, that Thiers, though theoretically inclining more to the Constitutional Monarchy in his views and opinions, regarded the "Conservative Republic" the Republic of "honourable people," as that form of government which, under the existing conditions in France, was alone possible, under which the different political parties might co-operate primarily for the good of the nation; therefore his efforts were directed to the establishment and maintenance of the Republican form of rule. The necessary consequence of this policy was, that he inclined more and more to the Left, and thus not only became estranged from the monarchical Right, but also gradually lost ground in the two centres, on which he had hitherto principally relied, and from which he had chosen his ministers. The sympathies of the Assembly failed him, the number of his faithful and reliable followers dwindled away. The organization of the definite Republic, which he recommended in his message of the 13th November, 1872, with the dissolution of the Assembly, was buried and put out of sight by the Committee of Thirty who had to deliberate upon it; and instead, a motion was brought forward in the National Assembly as to the functions of the President. This was intended to limit the direct interference of the Chief of the Executive in the course of business, and thus fetter his consequent personal influence.

To these political differences there were now added ecclesiastical dissensions. While the Opposition in Germany increased their attacks on Ultramontanism, the leading circles in France gave more open expression to their Papist tendencies and politico-clerical Catholicism. Pilgrimages were encouraged, superstition, and belief in miracles, a worship of the Virgin and the saints, as uncompromising as even in the Middle Ages, was revived, and old Catholic movements were kept in check; the prefects issued insulting proclamations against the Protestants, as in the days of Louis XIV. In this hypocritical and bigoted policy, which, like a mask for inward superstition, veiled the irreligious and free-thinking tendencies of the largest portion of the nation, neither the Republicans, nor any enlightened men, such as Thiers and Grévy, the President of the National Assembly, took part. At Lyons the Council had abolished the Church educational system; the Ultramontane deputies on the Right demanded that the Government should render assistance by a change in the constitution of councils; in the stormy debates a clerical zealot was called to order, but his partisans would not be rebuked. Consequently Grévy, one of the most reliable of Thiers' supporters, found himself compelled to resign his presidency. Thereupon the monarchico-clerical majority elected one of themselves, the deputy Buffet, president (4th April, 1873); the Radicals, on the other hand, succeeded by a supplementary election in Paris in getting Barodet, the dismissed mayor of Lyons, elected to the National Assembly. Not only the candidate of the Right, but the minister Rémuset, who was favoured by the Conservative Republicans, was in the minority. This advance of democracy brought the monarchical elements of all shades closer together. Under such conditions it was a hazardous undertaking for Thiers, when he brought before the National Assembly, even after the Easter recess, a scheme for the establishment of a first chamber, an electoral law, and a law regarding the functions of the President, and once more demanded the definite proclamation of a Republic. He himself had shortly before strengthened the ranks of his opponents; for, at a change in the ministry, he did not avail himself of the Right Centre, but summoned the moderate Republican, Casimir Périer, of the Left Centre, into the Cabinet. This caused vexation to the ambitious and place-seeking politicians, principally Orleanists, who had hitherto almost exclusively possessed the ministerial posts, and many of them now joined the monarchical Opposition. Instead of immediately proceeding to the consideration of the proposals of the Government, a vote of censure, on the motion of Changarnier, was passed on the last ministerial change (23rd May). This induced the ministry to retire. Even Thiers handed in his resignation, and experienced the unmerited and unexpected slight of having it accepted by the majority of the National Assembly, and then witnessing Marshal MacMahon, Duke of Magenta, elected President of the Republic in his place. After the latter had accepted the office, he commissioned the Duc de Broglie, who had inspired and conducted the whole intrigue against Thiers, with the formation of a new ministry. The Bonapartists were the greatest gainers by the bloodless *coup d'Etat*. They now entered the lists as a separate party. The votes which the eloquent and intriguing Rouher had brought into the field against Thiers, had essentially contributed to his overthrow. But Napoleon IV., whose banner they raised aloft, was, with his mother, the Empress Eugénie, in exile; while the Orleans princes were in possession of immense wealth, and held an honourable position at Paris and Versailles; and the last Bourbon, the grandson of Charles X., took up his abode in the château of Chambord, not far from Blois, from which he derived his ducal title, and was considered by the Legitimists and Clericals as the future monarch of France.



THE POPE'S SWISS GUARDS.

FRANCE AND THE VATICAN;—SWITZERLAND AND ITALY.

CLERICALS AND LEGITIMISTS.—PILGRIMAGES AND MIRACULOUS APPEARANCES.—THE COMTE DE PARIS AND THE COMTE DE CHAMBORD.—A KNIGHT-ERRANT OF LEGITIMACY.—ATTEMPT TO RE-ESTABLISH OLD INSTITUTIONS.—THE RESULT OF THE ATTEMPT.—CHAMBORD'S MANIFESTO.—TRICOLOUR AND WHITE FLAG.—TRIAL OF MARSHAL BAZAINE.—ALTERATIONS IN THE NEW REPUBLICAN CONSTITUTION.—NEW REGULATIONS.—SWITZERLAND AND ITALY.—CLERICAL AGITATION IN THE CONFEDERACY.—ROYAL ROME AND THE VATICAN.



THE HOPES OF THE CLERICAL PARTY AND LEGITIMISTS.

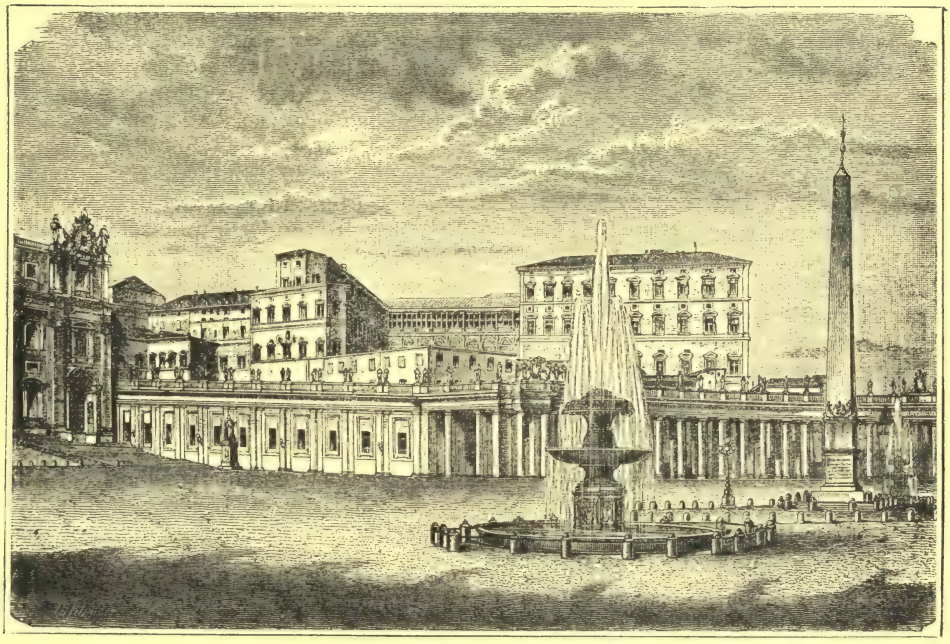
THUS the world beheld the spectacle, unique in history, of a defeated general, who had only his wounds to thank that the catastrophe of Sedan was not carried out under his direction, being placed at the head of a great military State, certainly not through his own powers or merits, but by less honourable means.

In order to do battle with heterodox and free-thinking Republicanism, the new Government relied on the clerical element in France. Not only was education left under priestly dominion, and the bringing up of the future generation, especially young women, more and more entrusted to monks and sisters of mercy; in outward life, ecclesiastical sanctity was exhibited with conscious ostentation.

Formerly the clergy had sought to avail themselves of the unfortunate issue of the war to add to the triumph of the Catholic Church, by directing disturbed and terrified minds to the consolations of religion, to prayer and meditation, and by ascribing the public misfortune to the increasing godlessness of the world; so now, when a soldier, but little skilled in politics, and an unprincipled, intriguing minister, not over-scrupulous in the choice of his means, ruled the Republic, while the Marshal's bigoted wife gave the tone to the higher circles of society, a hypocritical ecclesiasticism was fostered and practised as the fashion, in such a manner as had not been seen since the Middle Ages. Pilgrimages to miraculous places were ordained as national excursions, and were joined by Papist aristocrats from other countries. At the pilgrimage resort of Parey-le-Monial, France was solemnly dedicated to the sacred heart of Jesus in a chapel erected by Marie Alacoque, one of the ecstatic saints of the seventeenth century; numbers of heavenly visions were seen, and miraculous appearances and pilgrimages were on the increase; the deputy Keller suggested the building of a new church on Montmartre "to the sacred heart of Jesus," to draw down upon France and the capital the Divine compassion and Divine protection. This movement, in which all monarchical and reactionary sympathisers took part, also served as a demonstration against the "persecution of the Church" in Germany. The old revengeful feelings burst forth with fresh violence at the action of the German-Prussian Government towards the Church. At the pilgrimage festivals the prayer was offered up: "Save France and Rome, and aid us to win back Alsace and Lorraine." But the new Government also was far from desiring to forestall Divine intervention by any warlike demonstration; rather was it zealously engaged in preserving peace abroad, that it might the more vigorously combat the advance of Republicanism at home. The greatest security seemed to lie in a monarchical restoration. The predominant party in the National Assembly therefore eagerly urged a "fusion" of both branches of the Bourbon dynasty as the most certain way of attaining this end. It achieved a triumph, therefore, when the Comte de Paris set out for Frohsdorf to render homage in the name of the Orleans family to the Comte de Chambord (5th Aug., 1873). This agreement was, however, only external, and had in no way the desired effect. But in the Government circles the event made a great impression; the chief hindrance to the restoration of a monarchy appeared through this to have been overcome. Nevertheless, the matter was not to be brought to a climax so quickly; many obstacles still remained in the way; and between the Legitimists and Orleanists, between the adherents of the white and the tricoloured banner, there were many sharply divergent principles to be harmoniously adjusted. There was, however, no need for haste. A dissolution of the Assembly was no longer to be thought of; nothing was to be feared from the Marshal; and the Duc de Broglie, the true ruler of the State, possessed skill and experience enough to keep himself and his associates at the helm by means of ingenious intrigues, seductive arts, and clerical influences. There was no danger of a Republican appeal to arms, as the Marshal-President was the commander-in-chief of the army. Under the new Government there took place the final evacuation of French soil by German troops, according to the arrangement made by Thiers in September.

Thus the Clerico-Legitimist party was able in the autumn to devote itself to the boldest plans. Since the reconciliation of the two lines of the Bourbon dynasty, a second restoration after the manner of 1814 and 1815 seemed extremely feasible. If the National Assembly, in which the

Monarchists and Ultramontanists had the decisive vote, could succeed in setting the Duc de Chambord, who, as "Henri Quint," was regarded by the Legitimists as the sole lawful ruler of France, on the throne of his fathers, what a mighty transformation would be wrought throughout the whole political life of Europe! France would then be at the head of a reaction, which would be joined by the Clerical and Ultramontane parties of every country, and on which the "prisoner of the Vatican" would bestow his blessing and his support, that he might forthwith be reinstated in his temporal power. The Carlists in Spain, the Papists in Great Britain and Ireland, the Ultramontanes in Italy and Germany, and the entire militant forces of an infallible



THE VATICAN.

Papacy would reverence France, with the lawful king at her head, as their shield and champion. Then the German Empire, with the Imperialism of the Protestant House of Hohenzollern, which had risen up, powerful and menacing, in the heart of Europe, would again fall asunder, and both in Germany and Italy the small States would, as in former times, recognise the supremacy and protection of monarchical France; then would Austria, who had allowed herself to be urged by the German element into the path of modern state life and of intellectual progress, return once more to the old Conservative Catholic policy. As, fifty years before, the first era of revolution had been brought to a close by a Bourbon restoration, so would the second now terminate in a similar fashion, and a Christian orthodox temper would once more prevail. Legitimism, which had for so long led a shadowy kind of existence among a few aristocratic circles, like a mummy in a death slumber, appeared to have awakened to new life, and to be about to celebrate a new morning of resurrection.

A KNIGHT-ERRANT OF LEGITIMACY.

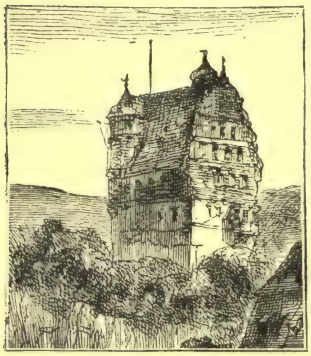


TO bring these golden dreams into the sphere of reality, to bring back the distracted and confused French State to its old monarchical unity and strength, by the union of throne and altar, was now the most earnest endeavour of the Royalists and Clericals in the National Assembly, as well as of their partisans in the old aristocratic families and among the priesthood; and however little sympathy and susceptibility for these aims and conceptions of an obsolete society was shown by the citizen classes, yet the changeableness and fickle mind of the French people, their inclination for variety and novelty, and the power exercised by an existing Government, particularly when supported by an influential priesthood, rendered a successful transformation of the state form, and a change in the temper and prevalent theories of the time, a matter of possibility.

Thus during the autumn months of 1873, the Monarchico-Clerical members developed a feverish activity, that they might attain their political aims by negotiation and agreement, and that the union of the present and the past might procure for the French nation a prosperous future. First of all it was necessary that the "fusion," which appeared to have been effected between the chiefs of the dynasty, should also be established between the two parties in the National Assembly, the Legitimists and the Orleanists; for without this agreement no majority could be procured for a restoration of the monarchy, particularly as the President, although not opposed to the scheme, showed no enthusiasm on the subject. But even during the deliberations, the divergence of conflicting principles soon became apparent. As the Comte de Paris by his visit to Frohsdorf had only intended to signify that he made his claim to the throne subordinate to that of the older head of the family, that he yielded precedence to the Bourbon, but that he was not willing to surrender the political theories and principles of the House of Orleans, so between both groups of Monarchists there existed an essential difference of aims and aspirations. According to the theory of the Legitimists and their chief, the grandson of Charles X. ought to be simply proclaimed by the National Assembly as the only rightful possessor of the throne, and details as to the future government should be confidingly left to him; for every condition imposed upon him would put in question his hereditary right, and would place his divine principle at the mercy of the revolution; it was just this legitimacy which in the eyes of Chambord was the highest good, which he would in no way violate, or allow to be weakened by the ideas of the time; he could with truth be designated the "Quixote of legitimacy." The Orleanists did not, however, insist on a formal agreement; they also did not wish to limit the hereditary right by any restriction, but they demanded guarantees that there

should be no return to the absolute *régime* of former centuries, and that the results of the Revolution should not be put in question; they required that Chambord, before his proclamation as king, should at least promise to conduct the government in the form and within the limits of a Constitutional Monarchy. For the Legitimist Constitution the white banner of ancient royalty served as a symbol, while the Orleanist flag was the tricolor; only with the tricolored banner, with which France's honour and renown had been bound up for nearly a century, was King Henry V. to be allowed to govern. After long negotiations the two parties united in a programme, in which the principle of hereditary monarchy was placed in the first rank, but at the same time all the essential privileges of a Constitutional State with two Chambers were stipulated for, as well as the maintenance of the tricolor. This programme was to be accepted by the Comte, and on the strength of it he was to be recalled by the National Assembly. With this object in view, ambassadors from the party set out for Salzburg, to learn the sentiments of the Comte de Chambord in an interview (13th Oct.).

The Result of the Attempt.



With suspended breath, France awaited, Europe awaited the result of this deliberation. But the curious world was compelled to restrain its impatience. The answer which Chambord gave to the Royalist ambassadors was so vague and reserved that its real meaning was not at first perceived. After the statement of the negotiators, the Comte made the verbal declaration that, as he was summoned to the throne, he was not inclined to initiate a Constitution, but would rather deliberate upon it with the representatives of the nation; and with regard to the question of the banner, he raised no objection. Both groups of Royalists understood the answer to be one in harmony with their programme, and decided to bring forward in the National Assembly a proposal for the recall of the rightful sovereign. In France and abroad, the restoration of the Bourbon throne was now regarded as an event to be confidently expected. It was true that a fierce struggle was to be anticipated in the National Assembly, as the Republicans of all shades would unite for general opposition under the guidance of Thiers. But every effort was in vain; before the important question came up for debate, Chambord made a declaration in a letter to one of his followers, which could only be regarded as a retractation (27th Oct.). It was a misunderstanding, he said, to believe that he had given his consent to the tricolor; he must remain steadfast to the white banner; he could not bring himself to this sacrifice of his honour, he did not desire to be "the legitimate king of revolution." Had conditions been suggested to his ancestor Henry IV., when the gates of Paris were opened to him? He also had a right to expect the same trust, he also must instil the same feeling of confidence. After the publication of this epistle, the plan of a restoration of a Bourbon throne was regarded as impossible. A man, already advanced in years, accustomed to a retired and tranquil existence, out of harmony with the active ideas of the time, and without the burning ambition for dominion, was neither capable nor fitted to undertake the thorny mission

of steering the State vessel through the storms which threatened on all sides. Even the most zealous champions of Legitimist royalty lost their faith in the possibility of the projected restoration. Never would the nation have submitted to a system of government which would have regarded the most glorious age of France, the proudest feats of a bygone generation, as crime and revolt, or consented to revert to a long-forgotten and vanquished past.

However much the Ultramontanes and Clericals might lament that the era of Catholic reaction, which they had believed so near, should be again relegated to a distant future,—that the stone, which the Colossus was to dash in pieces, was again set in motion,—yet the opinion prevailed throughout France that the Comte de Chambord could not be the banner-bearer; that for the moment the idea of a Royalist restoration must be given up, and that Republican forms and powers must continue to prevail. While the Royalists still remained secretly faithful to their old love, and on the occasion of the Comte passing through Paris to Brussels, offered him their homage and filled his heart with fresh hopes, the Conservatives and Monarchists came to an agreement, which was to be carried out and made public, before a reaction against M. Thiers' Republic, or the chance of a future restoration would be possible. On the meeting of the National Assembly on the 5th November, the motion was brought forward, that the office of President of the Republic should be conferred on Marshal MacMahon for seven years (19th Nov., 1873). On account of his former attitude towards the monarchical schemes of restoration, Broglie and his associates believed that the existence of a "Septennate" would be no insuperable hindrance in case of any future eventualities. By this means, the existing but purely nominal Republic was allowed to continue, and an unsettled and doubtful form of government was called into existence, which gave free scope for intrigues, party selfishness, and ambitious schemes. In combination with the Clerical party, and relying on the army, and the state of siege which still prevailed in many departments, the nameless government of MacMahon's "Septennate" was used in every way to maintain the established order of things against both Republicans and Bonapartists.

At this very time, while MacMahon was being raised to the highest pinnacle of honour, his former comrade Bazaine was lodged in another part of the palace of Versailles, and was then brought before the court-martial at Trianon, where in a great trial, in which the whole world took part, it was proved that the great nation had only been defeated through the treachery of the Bonapartist Marshal. For two months the court-martial spectacle was continued under the presidency of the Duc d'Aumale; the documents drawn up by Generals Rivière and Pourcet for the accusation comprised 382 closely written pages; hundreds of witnesses of every class were brought forward, among them Colonel Stoffel, who was unpopular in France on account of his report regarding the Prussian army organization, and who, before the end of the trial, was sentenced to three months' imprisonment for rudeness to the presiding judge, Rivière. We are already familiar with the events at Metz, which finally led to the capitulation; it was possible that the Marshal, in his dislike for the revolutionary Republic at Paris, and affection for the Imperial House, had not exerted his whole energies in the defence, but treason could hardly be proved against him. Nevertheless, the court-martial found him guilty, and sentenced him to be degraded from his office, and put to death in accordance with the law. A letter from Prince Frederick Charles in favour of the accused only increased the wrath of the people, who cried aloud

for his execution. But as though the judges themselves felt a twinge of conscience at the sentence, they at the same time signed a petition for pardon to the President of the Republic. MacMahon thereupon commuted the punishment of death into a twenty years' imprisonment, remitted the disgrace of the formalities of a military degradation, without cancelling its operation, and appointed as the prisoner's place of confinement the fortress on the island of St. Marguerite, opposite Cannes, known in connection with the "iron mask." Bazaine's wealthy Mexican wife obtained permission to reside near him, with her family and servants, in a pavilion of the sea-fortress. This afforded her an opportunity of bringing about the freedom of her husband in the following year with the aid of her brother (9th Aug., 1874). After an adventurous escape, by letting himself down with a rope to a Genoese vessel, Bazaine fled to Holland, and then offered his services to the Republican Government of Spain.

Alterations in the New Republican Constitution.

THE year 1874 brought no change in political affairs. When the clerical agitation, chiefly aimed at Italy and Germany, made itself too prominent, even in episcopal pastoral letters, Prince Bismarck poured forth a "cold shower" (January, 1874,) on overheated brains, by announcing in a note "that if the French Government did not choose to check the turbulence of the Ultramontane bishops and the emanations from their press, but thus without resistance allowed themselves to drift into an imminent war, Germany would not postpone the inevitable conflict until a time when it would be convenient to the French, but would consider herself justified at any time in a judicious forestalling of events." This statement had the effect of causing the French Minister of Worship to address a confidential admonition to the bishops who issued political letters to their flock. A short time afterwards followed the suspension of the "Univers," and a pacificatory announcement with regard to Italy by the minister Decazes in the National Assembly. By this interference in the general strife, planned by the Jesuit and Legitimist parties for effecting "a counter-revolution," the Imperial Chancellor had only aimed at the preservation of peace, and this object was attained; clerical passions have since become less loud in their publicity.

The legislative labours of the Versailles Assembly remained throughout the winter limited to insignificant internal affairs; but the perception that Republicanism on the one hand, and Bonapartism on the other, was on the increase, caused the Broglie ministry to deem it advisable to introduce some change in the Constitution, so that the Marshal-President should be able to do more "than merely hold the shield over Versailles and the National Assembly; he should be enabled to enforce moral order." His scheme for establishing a supreme Council, or Senate, which seemed to point to paving the way of the Orleanists to power, met with no favour from the Assembly; Broglie was compelled to resign, and the Cissey-Decazes Cabinet now undertook public business. From this time forward more earnest efforts were

directed towards putting an end to the provisional condition, and passing from the Interim to a securer form of government; for the present institutions were powerless to "afford security for those interests which it was necessary to protect." But the fear of the excesses of Republican democracy was not



SALZBURG.

yet so general, but that every attempt to obtain a dissolution of the Chamber and a fresh election was rejected; and a proposal for reform made by Casimir Périer also failed to obtain a majority, as leaning too much to the Left. A tour made by President MacMahon in August and September strengthened

the chief in his conviction, however, that the country desired a better established government. And now a lively party manœuvring commenced at Versailles, in which all took part, aiming at either preventing, enfeebling, or promoting the development and establishment of the Republican Constitution. The Comte de Chambord also once more came forth into publicity, by declaring in a letter "to my friends," that every step in the organization of the Septennate was a revolt from the Legitimist principle. The year passed in deliberations, quarrels, attempts at reconciliation, without any form being decided on, by which the Republican Constitution might be combined with the Septennate of the then President, so that none of the parties in the Assembly should have to renounce their aims and aspirations for all time, and yet that the nation should be freed from the incubus of the provisorium and from the enervating political atmosphere of constant change. At last the French Constitution of the year 1875 was drawn up, and sanctioned by the majority of the Chamber. The "law as to the organization of official powers" declared that the legislative power was to be exercised by two assemblies—the Chamber of Deputies, composed of the representatives of the people, and a Senate of 300 members of at least forty years of age, of whom seventy-five were to be appointed by the National Assembly, and the remainder by legally constituted authorities in the departments. Both bodies were to unite in electing the President for seven years with the possibility of a re-election. The President was to be in command of the army, to make appointments to offices, to despatch and receive ambassadors, to promulgate the laws decided on by the two Chambers, and surround himself with a ministerial council, which should be responsible to the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. The initiative in proposing laws was to belong to the President as well as to the members of the legislative bodies in both Chambers. During this period occurred the demise of two men, who for three decades and more had played prominent parts in the political arena of France—Guizot, who died on the 13th of September, 1874, and his aged opponent, Ledru-Rollin, whose death took place on the 31st of December, 1874.

Switzerland and Italy.—Clerical Agitation in the Confederacy.

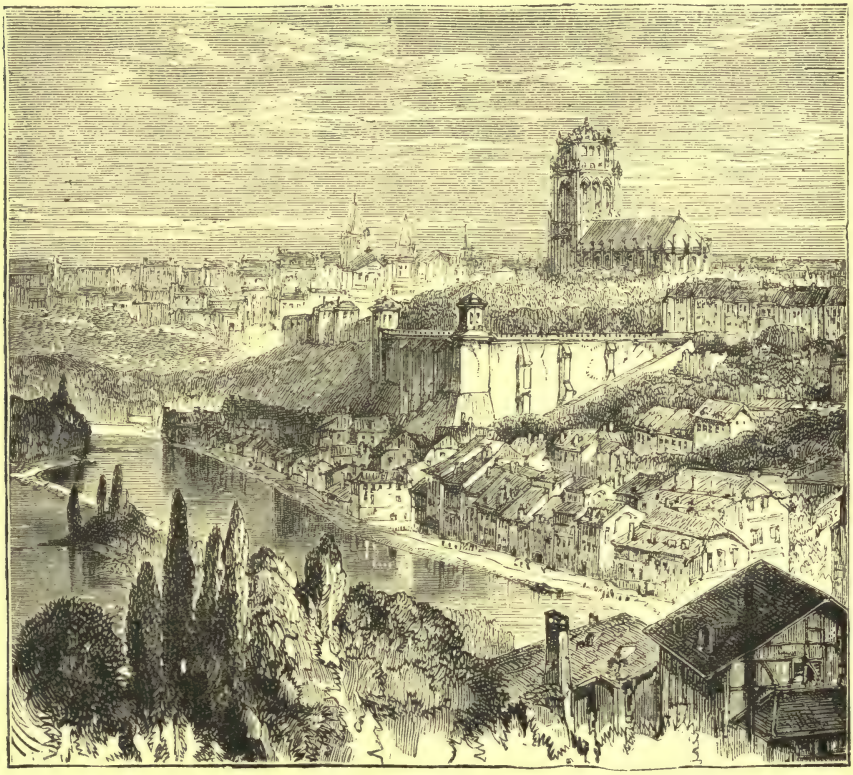


In Switzerland also Ultramontanism developed its feverish activity; and it adopted, moreover, as its head-quarters for issuing propaganda, the spot from which at one time emanated the most intense opposition to Rome—the birthplace of Calvinism, Geneva. It was a dangerous gift for the Protestant canton, when in the year 1815 it was increased by the addition of several Savoy villages. Since that time the Catholic population in the capital had increased by the influx from these districts. Poor, ignorant, and eager for novelty, the new-comers afforded a fruitful field of operations, both for the Ultramontane and Radical agitation. With their help, the ambitious and unscrupulous demagogue, James Fazy, made a successful attack on the Conservative citizen class and old institutions of the town, and obtained such influence among the lower classes by his skill as an agitator, that, owing to the law of universal suffrage, he ruled as dictator over the Geneva canton for several years, using

both Ultramontanism and Democracy as levers and weapons. Indignant at this disturbance of the Calvinist commonwealth, many distinguished families quitted the place, so that the ancient, venerable town, with its wealthy and cultured citizen class, entirely forfeited its former character. The Romish-Jesuitical propaganda now commenced its campaign. If it could succeed in winning over the church of Calvin, the noble cathedral of St. Peter, once more to Popery, what a triumph for Ultramontanism! The work was initiated with judgment and foresight. The conquest was to be effected by a stratagem. Since the Reformation there had been no bishop at Geneva; the Catholic Church was under the bishopric of Freiburg. In accordance, therefore, with instructions from Rome, the bishop of Freiburg appointed the Genoese Abbé Mermillod as his representative in that town, and the Pope conferred on him the title of Bishop of Hebron. Thus was the plan of warfare commenced. In July, 1872, it became known that the Pope, on his own responsibility, and without reference to the Government of the country, had appointed Mermillod bishop of Geneva in regular form. The Council of State now bestirred itself. On receiving an evasive answer to its complaint from the Freiburg authorities, it announced to Mermillod that it would only recognise him as pastor of Geneva, and not as general vicar and diocesan bishop, and forbade the exercise of any episcopal rights within the canton. Mermillod, however, replied that he had received his powers from the Holy See, and that in spite of the prohibition of the Council of State, he should continue to exercise his episcopal functions. The rest of the Catholic priesthood took part with Mermillod (Oct., 1872). At this critical juncture the Government of the country appealed to the Council at Berne, and on the latter declaring the action of the Curia and the Geneva clergy to be illegal, Mermillod was driven across the frontier (Feb., 1873). He then took up his abode at Ferney, on French soil, where Voltaire passed the evening of his life, meditating on "Ecrasez l'infame," and with the connivance or patronage of the French authorities, continued his agitations from the shelter of his home. The great Council, however, undertook on its own responsibility to modify the privileges and relationships of the Catholic communities. The choice of priests was to rest with the members of the Council, and those elected were to render an oath before their accession to office, promising to obey the laws and government of the country. Soon afterwards the French priest Loyson, known under the name of Father Hyacinthe, formerly celebrated as a clerical orator, took up his residence at Geneva, and originated the formation of an old Catholic community of French-speaking people, a proceeding which was quickly imitated in other communities.

About this time another illustrious stranger, the exiled Duke Charles of Brunswick, who for years had found an asylum in the beautiful town on Lake Leman, died (18th Aug., 1873), and left the town of Geneva the inheritance of his property, which amounted to thirty millions of francs. A movement, similar to that at Geneva, had occurred in the cantons of Basle and Solothurn, where the bishop Lachat, imitating the example of his German official brother, excommunicated and dismissed a priest, because he would not accept the doctrine of infallibility. When the bishop refused to withdraw the illegal measure, his deposition from his office was pronounced; and thus in German Switzerland also, the dispute as to the limits of the power of Church and State was brought before the nation. In the Confederacy, however, the hierarchical thirst for power met with less response than in the Catholic

countries of Germany. In the almost entirely Catholic canton of Solothurn, where for years the Government, the Council, and the majority of the people had done homage to advanced opinions, the excommunicated preachers and their followers were not only protected in their rights, but a law was passed in spite of the objection of the bishop and the agitation of the clergy of the canton, causing all ministers, as well as other officials of the State, to be subject to re-election (22nd Dec., 1872), and the States of the diocese (with



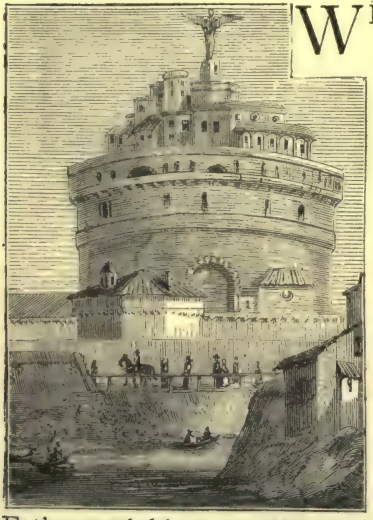
BERNE.

the exception of the clerical cantons of Lucerne and Zug) united in a conference, and agreed not to accept the dogma of infallibility (Jan., 1873). In St. Gallen, Glarus, and other places, demands were made in accordance with the Prussian May laws; and when the bishop persisted in his sentence of punishment, the bishopric of Basle was declared vacant. Under protest at this treatment, Lachat then took up his abode at Lucerne; and the bishopric has since remained unoccupied. As the Ultramontanists in the cantons belonging to the ordinariat of Basle formed the minority, they were compelled to yield to the decision of the majority. The protest, in which they gave expression to their views, met with slight notice from the Government. In Berne alone was it thought necessary to proceed to harsh measures. In the Catholic districts of the Jura, nearly the entire priesthood, under the protection of neighbouring France, had entered a protest against the deposition of the bishop; and when they did not comply with the demand for its

withdrawal, the Government suspended the refractory ecclesiastics. On the ground of the judicial sentence, the Government afterwards decreed the deposition of the majority of the priests in the districts of the Bernese Jura, forbade them to officiate at Divine worship in the churches and public buildings, and appointed fresh preachers. On disturbances taking place in certain of these districts, they were occupied by military, and order was maintained by force. The dismissed curés were, however, obliged to leave the country. They for the most part took up their residence in France, whence, supported by the native population, they fostered and kept alive the spirit of fanaticism and rebellion in the communities that had formerly been under their pastoral care. The French-speaking population of the Jura had always shown more sympathy for the great neighbouring State than for the canton of Berne, and now the desire for separation was intensified by Ultramontane agitation. The Bernese Government judged it necessary, therefore, to strengthen their authority among the rebellious population. By the establishment of an old Catholic faculty at the University of Berne, the Government showed their firm determination to oppose to the Jesuitical Papal Church a freer and more independent body of clergy.

Amid these conflicts the common bond of confederacy was strengthened; the influential cantons of Geneva and Waadt, which in former years had prevented the revision of the Confederate Constitution by their alliance with the Federalists of ancient Switzerland, now made common cause with the German Liberals. Thus was the old Confederate organization modified by suitable reforms to a larger unity and brought under a more supreme authority, and ratified as the law of the country by the decision of the people.

Royal Rome and the Vatican.



WHILE the Ultramontanes to the north and west of the Alps were describing to the credulous people the sufferings of the "prisoner in the Vatican," and demanding Peter's pence to relieve his great necessity, the Pope found himself, in consequence of the Guarantee Law and the principle of a "free Church in a free State," in a more advantageous position than in the days of his sovereignty. All the anxieties and perils which had beset the Pontificate through the temporal rule of the Church-State were now thrown upon the kingdom; while all the rights and privileges of a sovereign were secured to the Pontiff, with a considerable annual revenue, and he was hindered by no regard for foreign policy in the exercise of his absolute papal power. But the pretended imprisonment of the Holy Father and his apostolic poverty were such effective means of agitation for the faithful souls in Germany and the revengeful fanaticism in France, that it was impossible not to have recourse to them. In the meantime the royal court at the Quirinal, and the representatives of the nation at Monte Citorio established themselves permanently. Foreign ambassadors took up their

residence in the Eternal City, and Constitutional life pursued its undisturbed course. The names of Victor Emmanuel, Cavour, and Garibaldi still remain dear to the nation as in the days of the national unification. Innumerable squares and streets are named after them, and their statues, busts, and likenesses are everywhere to be seen. And as though the completion of the work of unification of the whole Apennine peninsula was to be exemplified by a great historical event, the opening of the Mont Cenis tunnel was accomplished about the time of the king's taking possession of Rome; and in the wonderful Alpine railway a fresh impetus was given to international intercourse. Although the incorporation of the Church-State, as formerly the acquisition of Venetia, had only been rendered possible by the victories of the Prussians and Germans, yet the Italian people could not forget their old sympathies for the French nation, and the services of Napoleon in the work of unity. The startling events which had taken place in the neighbouring country beyond the Alps had been watched with the greatest sympathy, and in aristocratic circles the question of a French-Italian war alliance had even been mooted. But it was soon evident to the Italian Government that the National Assembly at Versailles, with its reactionary and clerical tendencies, was not in harmony with the new powers at Rome. The organs of the Ultramontane party demanded with great emphasis the reinstatement of the Pope in his temporal power. We know how the Clerical deputies brought forward the question of a papal crusade in the Assembly, and that even Thiers, in whose opinion the establishment of Italian unity was the great mistake of Napoleon's policy, did not decisively oppose the demand, although he positively refused any armed intervention. It became more and more evident that France cherished the same animosity towards the Italian Government and nation as towards the German, and that if the Clerical party at Versailles gained the upper hand, a campaign against ungrateful Italy would be no impossibility—and that such a campaign would be used for the liberation of the Vatican prisoner, and his reinstallation in his "sacred rights." Until October, 1874, a French ship cruised in the waters of Civita Vecchia, in case the Pope should appeal to France for aid. Thus the conviction was forced upon the Italian Government that the kingdom could only rely on an assured future by alliance with Prussia and Germany, and thus the old relationships were restored. The hostile attitude of the papacy and the hierarchy towards both Italy and Germany was a warning for both that a political union would be for their mutual interests.

In accordance with a scheme laid before the Italian Parliament in November, 1872, the monasteries in Rome and in the former papal territory, as well as throughout the rest of Italy, were to be abolished; and in spite of the opposition of the Papists and of the clergy in France at this new desecration of the Church, the proposal was adopted almost unanimously by the House of Deputies, was accepted by an overpowering majority in the Senate, and duly proclaimed the law of the land (May, 1873). While it had been already evident on this occasion that public feeling in France had been unfriendly to Italy, this apprehension was further intensified when the Versailles National Assembly, under the overpowering influence of the monarchical right, commenced negotiations for declaring the Comte de Chambord king. The journey of King Victor Emmanuel through Vienna to Berlin was probably intended to show the Versailles Assembly where Italy would apply for aid, in case the Clerical party attempted to realize their wishes and schemes in relation to Rome.



SPAIN.

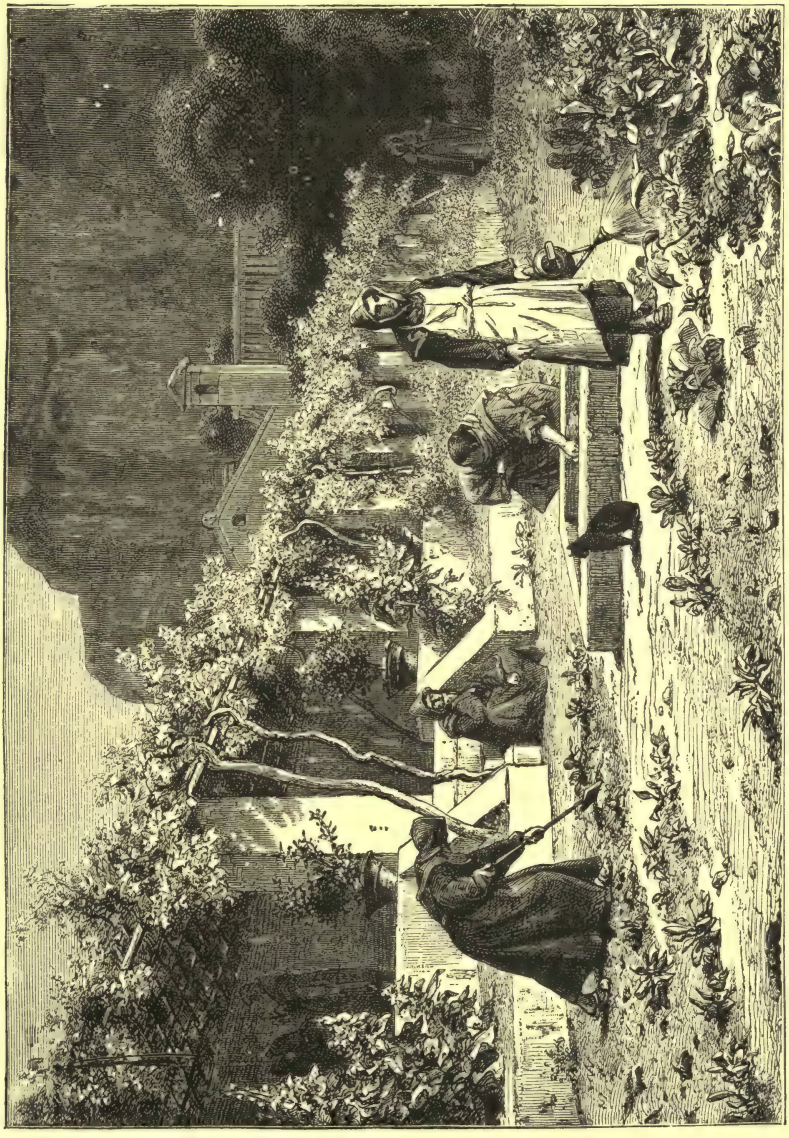
THE REPUBLIC IN SPAIN.—ATTEMPTED RESTORATION IN THE NORTH BY DON CARLOS.—FAILURE OF THE ENTERPRISE.—CUBA IN REVOLT.—COUP D'ETAT IN SPAIN.—DICTATORSHIP, AND RESTORATION OF THE MONARCHY.—MARTINEZ CAMPOS AND ALPHONSO XII.—CONCLUSION.

REPUBLICAN SPAIN.



AFTER the voluntary renunciation of the throne by King Amadeus (Feb., 1873), the Pyrenean peninsula fell into a condition similar to that of France after the days of Sedan. Necessity led to a Republican form of rule; the Cortes, into whose hands the sovereignty had practically fallen, organized a Republican Government, of which Figueras, Castellar, Pi y Margall, and Salmeron were the most celebrated members. At the same time it was decided that a new Assembly should be convened to undertake the task of establishing the Constitution and essential principles of the Republic of Spain; and in the interim a permanent committee, elected from the Cortes, was to undertake the management of public affairs. With this final decision, brought about amid passionate party conflicts, the germs of dissension were sown from the commencement; for while the men appointed to direct the Government, especially Castellar, a distinguished orator, but an unpractical and theorizing statesman, desired to have a Republic after the model of the United States of America, the members of the committee, under the experienced Marshal Serrano, desired to imitate the Conservative Republic of M. Thiers; and the dispute soon rose to such a pitch, that

the two parties in the capital took up arms against each other. The armed band of citizens did not venture, however, to engage in a contest with the skilful Government troops, but left the field to their opponents. This was the signal for Figueras to put an end to the internal dissensions by a small



GARDEN OF A SPANISH CONVENT.

coup d'état; the Permanent Commission was suspended, and Serrano and his adherents escaped across the frontier (24th April). The elections were then proceeded with, and resulted in a majority for the Democrats, Radicals, and Federalists. While the Legislative Assembly now set to work to transform the ancient Monarchy of Spain into a Federative Republic of thirteen allied

States, with popular representation, the different provinces having their own councils, and the towns and communities comprehensive rights, while the Central Government and the Cortes were to be limited to a closely restricted territory with the capital of Madrid, like the American Congress at Washington. Spain was in reality drifting into a state of complete anarchy. The Government, which in the first enthusiasm of the young Republic, had abolished conscription and decreed a voluntary national militia, was without sufficient means of defence, as the older soldiers, for the most part, deserted the banner, and recruits came in small numbers. And now Don Carlos, the pretender, who for some time past had been collecting money and preparing for war, under the eyes of the French authorities, made his entry into the northern provinces as King Carl VII. (3rd July), proclaimed his accession to power, and called on all Spaniards to submit. He quickly raised an army of 12,000 men, and supported by Ultramontane partisans in England, and provided with weapons and ammunition through the connivance of the French Government, commenced a civil war, which has marked with a brand of ignominy the civilization of the 19th century. Railways were destroyed, villages set on fire, and defenceless people were murdered and taken captive. No less intense was the opposition which the Government encountered in the south and in all the populous coast-towns. The Federative Republic, in favour of which the Cortes had declared itself, dazzled the lower classes of people; it was believed that with a state of liberty, equality, and fraternity, a golden age of prosperity would ensue, with community of property and distribution of the soil. The hot-blooded population of the southern and eastern sea-towns anticipated, therefore, the Federalist institutions, which should have been introduced in a Constitutional manner, and rendered themselves independent of the Madrid Government. In Cadiz, Malaga, Carthagena, and Barcelona, the lower classes gained possession of the government, not without detriment to life and property. The "International" fanned the flames, while it brought Socialist doctrines to add to the political excitement. Castelar's ideal Republic, a copy of the North American Union, with human rights, liberty of religion and the press, and with all the benefits accruing from the Liberal spirit of modern times, quickly assumed the features of a hideous and distorted caricature. The Ministry of Pi y Margall stood inactive in the face of events which it was powerless to check, and the excesses of Radical Democracy were allowed to continue their uninterrupted course. When, however, the Carlists continued to gain ground in the north, and the red Republic, with a system of communistic terrorism, was established in Seville, Cadiz, and Granada, the Government was at last compelled, for the safety of the country, to exert the powers which it had at its command, for the protection of life and property. By the union of the Government and the Moderate and Conservative elements in the Assembly, the Ministry was empowered to suspend the Constitutional guarantees in the rebellious provinces and towns, until the restoration of peace and order—in other words, to decree a state of martial law. After this victory of the Moderate party, Salmeron once more took the head of the Government, and with the aid of energetic military measures, succeeded in suppressing the Republican agitations in most of the towns. Only in Carthagena, where all the "Intransigentes," or Irreconcilables, had collected, was the banner of the Federative Republic still upheld; and under the guidance of the energetic Contreras, revolutionary resistance was organized into a civil war. All the factions of agitation—Federalists, Socialists, Intransigentes—joined their forces, and made

Carthagena the head-quarters of a political and social revolution. In September, however, and principally through the exertions of Castelar, who again undertook the management of affairs, and was invested by the Cortes with almost dictatorial powers, the town was compelled to surrender to a bombardment. Although accepting the principle of Federalism, Castelar saw that without a strong Government the Spanish kingdom would go to destruction, and that under existing conditions the unity and integrity of Spain could only be maintained by the centralization of all political and military forces. But though the "Centralists" by degrees gained the upper hand of the "Federalists," the "Intransigentes" and Red Democracy kept the south for a long time in a state of agitation; while in the north the Carlists, or "White Democracy," with secret aid from the Monarchists of France, increased in power and influence.

As though to increase the confusion in Spain, and add to the dismay of the Madrid Government, the Cubans now raised the banner of revolt, and endeavoured to liberate their island from Spain. Union with the United States of America would be the necessary result of the separation; therefore from that quarter aid was sent to the rebels. The United States Government abstained itself from open intervention, but placed no hindrances in the way of private enterprises. When the pirate ship *Virginius* sailed from Cuba in October, with the intention of rendering aid to the revolted eastern half of the island, it was captured by the Spanish authorities, although, as a blind, it hoisted the star banner of the Union; and when on a closer investigation the hostile intention came to light, the greater part of the buccaneers were sentenced to death and shot. The Government at Washington then made complaints, insisted on the surrender of the vessel, and demanded compensation of the Madrid Government. Castelar steered through this sea of troubles and perplexities with a steadfast and courageous heart; and the conviction that he did violence to principles to which he had devoted his whole life, and sacrificed his idealist theories in practical matters, thus bowing to the force of iron necessity, without being untrue to himself, won him the esteem and confidence of all Conservative men.



DICTATORSHIP, and Restoration of the Monarchy.—Thus the year 1873 came to an end; and who could prophesy what the immediate future would bring to this land of the unforeseen? "The political soil of Spain resembles an hour-glass in constant motion," wrote a correspondent to a great French paper. And in point of fact the new year was to bring forth a new *coup d'état*, without, however, any permanent order being thereby established. The difference of opinion as to the policy to be followed which prevailed between Salmeron, the President of the Cortes, and Castelar, the chief of the Executive, at last resulted in the resignation of the latter; and a Democratic Ministry was about to be formed (Jan., 1874), when a proclamation in favour of the maintenance of order was issued by the army, inspired by the Committee of Action under Serrano. Suddenly, at a late hour of the evening, Pavia, a young and resolute general, entered the House of Representatives with some armed men, declared the Cortes dissolved, and compelled the deputies to disperse. This *coup*

d'etat, which was effected with hardly any disturbance, was the commencement of a new order of Government. Pavia summoned the leaders of every party to the Parliament House, declared he had no personal views, that he placed in their hands the power which he had wrested from the people who had brought the country to ruin, and requested them to form a new Government. Castelar, who would have been welcomed as a member of the new Ministry, refused to make common cause with the instigators of the *coup d'état*, and laid down his office. "I protest with the whole energy of my soul against the brutal blow which has been struck at the Constituent Assembly," he said in a public address to the nation. As the time was not yet ripe for the restoration of the Monarchy under the young Alphonso, to whom his mother Isabella had bequeathed her rights, a new Republican Government had to be established, in which Marshal Serrano, Duc de la Torre, was chief of the Executive, and Sagasta President of the Ministerial Council. During the year 1874, therefore, a Republican Government with a military head was established on both sides of the Pyrenees—in France, legitimately secured after a number of years—in Spain, existing only as a kind of Dictatorship, without legal basis, and also without power and authority. The surrender of Carthagena and the suppression of the revolutionary risings in the capital quickly followed this change of rule. Nothing proved more clearly the complete exhaustion and weariness of the Spanish nation than the ease with which the transformation of government was effected.

The Madrid civic guard was disarmed without resistance. Separate insurrections in Barcelona, Valladolid, and Saragossa were repressed; and on the 25th of January the Minister Sagasta was able to declare, in a despatch to foreign courts, that the insurrectionary elements in Spain had been repressed, and a solid government established. But it was evident that the new Government, which had been called into existence by force of arms, and which dispensed with any legislative authority by the representatives of the people, could only be provisional for a shorter or longer period. The co-operation of men of divergent principles could have no lasting continuance, and soon all the old quarrels and ministerial changes commenced once more. That a form of government instituted in such a fashion should be able to maintain itself for a whole year, and preserve the country in a state of temporary peace, was a proof of the statesmanship and political sagacity of the Duke-President Serrano, and also a proof of the national desire for tranquillity and order. The insurrection of the Carlists in the northern provinces, and in the French frontier country adjoining the Pyrenees, was, however, a sufficient tax on the energies of Serrano, and vainly did the Madrid Government appeal for redress to the neighbouring State for violation of international neutrality; for Pau was regarded as the head-quarters of the pretender. Not till April and May did the Republican troops under Marshal Concha and General Laserna succeed in gaining some advantages, in consequence of which Serrano and Topete were able to enter Portugalete and Bilbao as victors.

The warlike proceedings in the Pyrenees excited the interest of the European world, and the more important newspapers of every country despatched correspondents to the Peninsula. Among these was a German correspondent named Schmidt, who had formerly been a Prussian captain, and had been decorated for his services in the last war. He fell into the hands of the rebels, and although he was unarmed, was shot by the express command of Don Carlos at Villatuerta. Such an affront offered to his whole nation, it was not in the nature of Prince Bismarck to overlook; but as he could gain no direct

satisfaction from the bands of barbarians, he endeavoured to render moral support to the Government at Madrid, by instigating the public recognition of Serrano. All the European States, with the single exception of Russia, followed the example of Prussia; and even France felt itself obliged to restrain its active support of the Carlist party. In Spain, however, the conditions were not such that the Republican Government could be aided by moral support from abroad. The idea of a Bourbon restoration continued to gain ground in the army. And when this change came about, it also was accomplished without revolutionary agitation, and probably with the secret approbation of Serrano. On the 30th of December, General Martinez Campos, who had been



ALPHONSO XII.

banished for his Bourbon sympathies to Murviedro, raised the banner of monarchy, and proclaimed Alphonso XII., who was then at Paris with his mother Isabella, for the Christmas celebrations, King of Spain. The proclamation of the army was soon followed by the town and province of Valencia; and the central army under Jovellar and the garrison troops of Madrid also gave in their adhesion. Thus the year 1874 closed in Spain as it had begun—with a military *coup d'état;* the ministers issued a protest against the usurpation of power, and resigned. A new Government was established under the presidency of Canovas del Castillo; and while Serrano set out for France, the young king landed at Valencia and made his entrance into Madrid, everywhere received with popular acclamations. Thus was a new era once more commenced, under happier auspices, in the distracted kingdom of Spain.

CONCLUSION.



IT now only remains to chronicle those chief events of the last few years that have passed into the domain of history, and to give a parting glance at the condition of the nations at the present day. A new glory has been added to the British crown in the assumption, by Queen Victoria, of the title Empress of India (Kaisar-i-Hind), a measure calculated to bring the idea of dependence upon the power and justice of their British masters more powerfully before the minds of the natives of India. The increased efficiency of the rule of England in India was exemplified during a terrible famine that devastated part of the Indian continent. In former times such a calamity would have involved the loss of millions of lives; but a judiciously organized system of government relief, supplemented by munificent subscriptions from London, averted mortality and mitigated the sufferings of the Eastern subjects of the Kaisar-i-Hind. The great interests of England in the East have necessitated warlike intervention in Afghanistan, where General Roberts, in 1878, brilliantly vindicated the honour and influence of Britain. In Egypt, also, intervention was necessary, and the triumph of Tel-el-Kebir was followed by an occupation of the country by a British force, for the protection of the Government of the Khedive. In South Africa, troubles have also arisen, from the lawlessness alike of the Zulus and their chiefs, Cetewayo and others, and the restlessness of the Dutch Boers; after some severe mishaps, arising chiefly from the national English fault of undervaluing the foe, tranquillity and subordination were restored.

In Russia the terror of Nihilism has arisen with a more ghastly strength than ever. On the 13th of March, 1881, the Czar, Alexander II., fell a victim to a conspiracy of a Nihilist organization. The murderers perished on the scaffold; but the new Czar, Alexander III., seems to have done little towards winning the confidence of his subjects or the establishment of internal concord.

Italy has, in the last years, gone steadily forward on the path of progress; and the kingdom which, a quarter of a century ago, was among the hopes of the future, has definitely taken its place among the important powers of Europe. Victor Emmanuel, the "re galantuomo," dying in 1878, was succeeded by his equally popular son Humbert. In April, 1880, Garibaldi died, full of years and honours; he had lived to see the accomplishment of the great wish of his life—the establishment of a united Italy, with Rome for its capital.

The third French Republic sustained a great loss in the death of the energetic Léon Gambetta. The death of Pius IX., and the accession of Leo XIII., inspired hopes that a *modus vivendi* may be found between the Government and the Vatican. In general the contemplation of the history of the last years gives reason for thankfulness for the progress made in the recognition of popular rights, and the extension of the principles of justice and of equitable rule, in which the best assurance is found of the safety and happiness of nations.

BRITISH SOVEREIGNS—WITH THE YEARS OF THEIR DEATH.

DESCENT OF THE SOVEREIGNS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

1 EGBERT, King of England, *d.* 837.
2. ETHELWULF, *d.* 857.

3. ETHELBALD, 860. 4. ETHELBERT, 866. 5. ETHELRED I., 871. 6. ALFRED the Great, 901.
7. EDWARD I., 925.

8. ATHELSTAN, 940. 9. EDMUND I., 946. 10. EDRED, 955. Thyra. Gormo III., K. of Denmark.

11. EDWY, 958. 12. EDGAR, 975. Richard I., D. of Normandy. Harold VIII., K. of Denmark, 981.
15. SUENO, K. of Denmark, 1014.

13. EDWARD II., the Martyr, 979. 14. ETHELRED II., 1016. Emma. 14. Ethelred, K. of England. Richard II.
17. CANUTE, 1035. Estrida. Richard II., D. of Normandy.

Elgiva. Emma. Robert II., 1038.

16. EDMUND II., Ironsides, 1016. 20. EDWARD III., the Confessor, 1066. Githa.
18. HAROLD I., 1040. 19. HARDICANUTE 1042.

Edward. 21 HAROLD II., 1066.

gar Atheling Margaret. 22. WILLIAM I., the Conqueror, 1087.

Malcolm III., K. of Scotland.

Maud 23, WILLIAM II., Rufus, 1100. 24. HENRY I., 1135. Adela.

24. Henry I., K. of England. Maud, of Scotland. Stephen, Count of Blois
25. STEPHEN, of Blois, 1154

Maud, 1167.

Emperor Henry V., 1125. Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, 1150.

26. HENRY II., 1189.

27. RICHARD, Cœur-de-Lion, 1199. 28. JOHN, 1216.

29. HENRY III., 1272.
30. EDWARD I., 1307.
31. EDWARD II., 1327.
32. EDWARD III., 1377.

Edward, the Black Prince, 1376. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, 1399. Edmund, Duke of York.

33. RICHARD II., 1399. Richard, Duke of York.

34. HENRY IV., 1413. John, Earl of Somerset. Richard, Duke of York.

35. HENRY V., 1422. John.

36. HENRY VI., 1461. Margaret. 37. EDWARD IV., 1483. 39. RICHARD III. 1455.

Edmund, Duke of Richmond.

40. HENRY VII., 1509. 38. EDWARD V., 1483. Elizabeth,

Elizabeth, of York. 40. HENRY VII., 1509.

41. HENRY VIII., 1547. Margaret. Mary.

James IV., King of Scotland. Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

42. EDWARD VI., 1553. 43. MARY, 1558. 44. ELIZABETH, 1603. James V., King of Scotland. Frances.

43. Philip, King of Spain, 1598. Mary, Queen of Scotland, 1587. Henry Grey.

Henry, Lord Darnley. Lady Jane Grey, 1554.

45. JAMES I. of England, and VI. of Scotland 1625.

46. CHARLES I., 1649. Elizabeth.

Frederick, K. of Bohemia.

47. CHARLES II., 1685. 48. JAMES II., deposed, 1688. 49. MARY. Sophia, known as the Electress of Hanover

49. WILLIAM, Prince of Orange. Ernest-Augustus, Elector of Brunswick.

49. MARY, 1694. 50. ANNE, 1714 49. WILLIAM III., 1702.

51. GEORGE I., 1727.
52. GEORGE II., 1760.

Frederick, Prince of Wales, 1751.

53. GEORGE III., 1820.

54. GEORGE IV., 1830. Frederick, D. of York, 1827. 55. WILLIAM IV., 1837. Edward, D. of Kent, 1820. Ernest-Augustus, D. of Cumberland, and K. of Hanover, 1851. Augustus-Frederick, Duke of Sussex, 1843. Adolphus-Frederick, D. of Cambridge, 1850. Charlotte. Augusta, Elizabeth Mary, Sophia, Amelia.

56. Alexandrina-VICTORIA, Queen of Great Britain, *b.* 1819.

Francis-Albert-Augustus-Charles-Emmanuel, Duke of Saxony, Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, *b.* 1819, *m.* 1840, *d.* 1861.

Albert Edward, P. of Wales, *b.* 1841. Alfred, D. of Edinburgh, *b.* 1844. Arthur, D. of Connaught, *b.* 1850. Leopold, *b.* 1853. Victoria, *b.* 1840. Alice, *b.* 1843; *d.* 1881. Helena, *b.* 1846. Louise, *b.* 1848. Beatrice, *b.* 1857

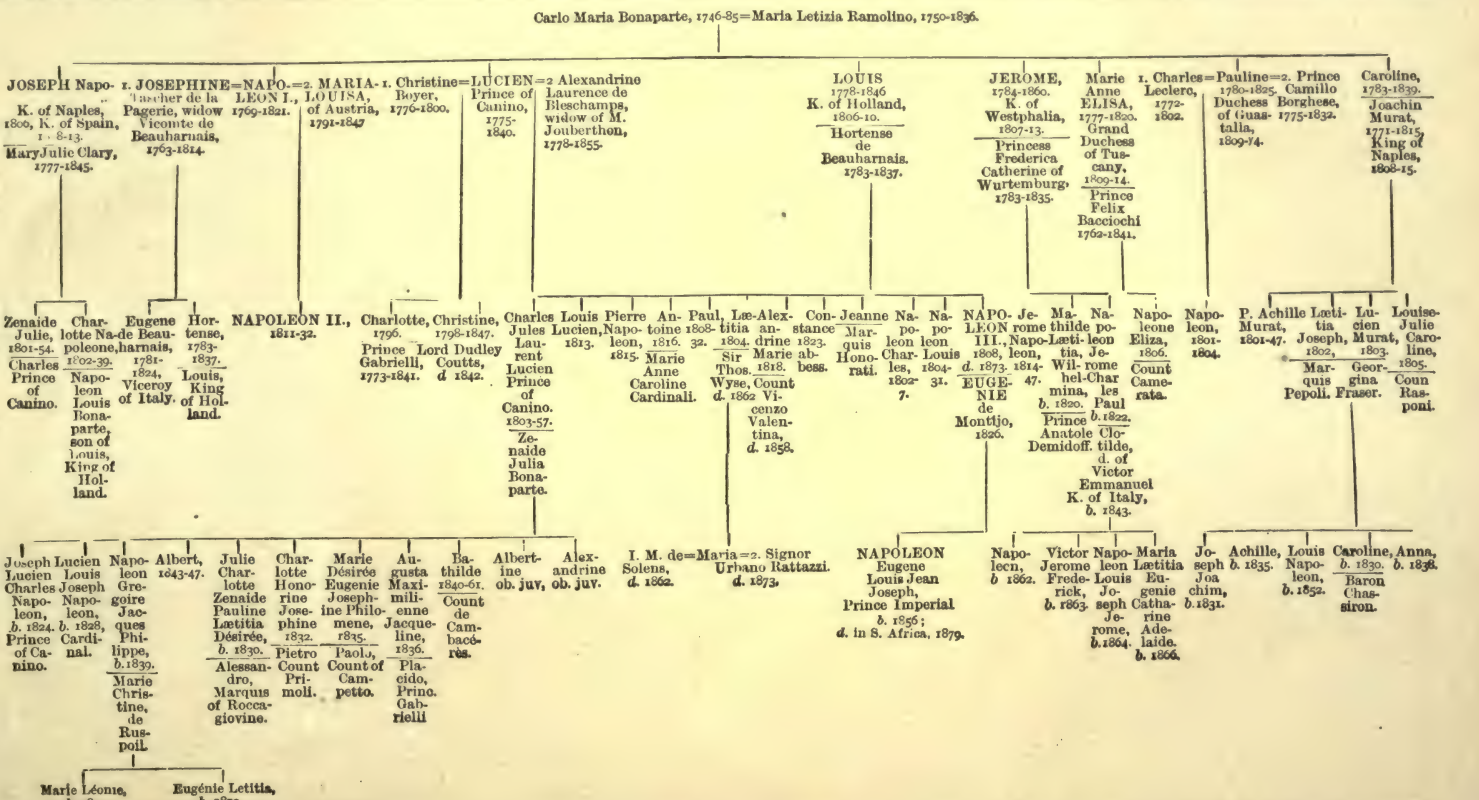
Alexandra, Princess of Denmark. *b.* 1844, *m.* 1863.

Albert Victor, *b.* 1864. George Albert, *b.* 1865. Louisa, *b.* 1867. Victoria, *b.* 1868. Maud *b.* 1869.

P. Edward of York b. 1894

THE IMPERIAL HOUSE OF THE BONAPARTES IN FRANCE.

This branch of the family was resident in the last century at Ajaccio, in Corsica, where Carlo Buonaparte, the father of the first Napoleon, was established as an advocate.



The elder line of the Bonaparte family is formed by the fusion of the descendants of Joseph, the eldest brother of Napoleon I., with those of Lucien, Napoleon's younger brother; the younger line descends from Jerome, the Emperor's youngest brother.

EMPERORS OF GERMANY AND AUSTRIA.

HOUSE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. CHARLEMAGNE, *d.* 814.
2. LOUIS, le Debonnaire, 840.

3. LOTHAIRE I., *d.* 855.
4. LOUIS II., 875.
Carloman, 880.
8. ARNOLD, 899.
Luitgarde.
Otto, D. of Saxony.

Louis, King of Bavaria.
7. CHARLES, *the Fat*, 888.
9. LEWIS IV., 912.
Placidia.
Emp. Conrad I.
Placidia.
Henry, D. of Bavaria.

Alpais.
Begon, Count of Paris.
Eberardus.
Eudes.
Conrad, D. of Franconia.
10. CONRAD I., king.

5. CHARLES, *the Bald*, *d.* 877.
6. LOUIS, III., *the Stammerer*, 880.
Judith.
Baldwin I., 878.
Baldwin II., 918.
Arnold, I., 964.
Baldwin, III, 961.
Arnold II., 988.
Baldwin IV., 1034.
Baldwin V., 1067.
Matilda.
William, the Conqueror, of England.
Henry I., of England, 1135.
Empress Matilda, 1167.
Earl of Anjou.
Henry II., 1189.

Hildegarde.
Thierry I., Coun of Holland.
Thierry II., 947.
Thierry III., 988.
Arnold, 995.
Thierry IV., 1039.
Florent I., 1061.
Thierry V., 1091.
Florent II., 1122.
Thierry VI., 1163.
Florent III.. 1190.
William I., 1223.
Florent IV.,1235.
27. WILLIAM II., 1235.

HOUSE OF SAXONY.

11. HENRY I., 936.
12. OTHO I., *the Great*, 973.
Ludolph, D. of Franconia.
Otho, D. of Franconia.
Henry, D. of Franconia.
13. OTHO II., 983
14. OTHO III. 1002.
Hermann, Count of Northeim.
Sigfried I.
Sigfried II.
Henry D. of Saxony.
Rixa, heiress of Saxony.
Henry.
15. HENRY II., 1024.

HOUSE OF FRANCONIA.

16. CONRAD II., 1039.
17. HENRY III., 1056.
18. HENRY IV., 1106.
Agnes.
1. Frederick, Count of Hohenstaufen, Duke of Suabia.
2. Leopold IV., Margrave of Austria.
19. HENRY V., 1125.
20. LOTHAIRE II.
Maud.
Henry, Duke of Bavaria.
25. OTHO IV., 1218.
Eleanor.
Alphonso IX., King of Castile.
Berengera.
Alphonso IX., King of Leon.
Ferdinand III., King of Leon and Castile, 1252.
30. ALPHONSO X., King of Castile, and nominal Emperor of Germany, 1284.
John, Lackland, 1216.
29. RICHARD, 1272. nominal.

HOUSE OF SUABIA OR HOHENSTAUFEN.

Frederick, Duke of Suabia, 1139.
22. FREDERICK I., Barbarossa, 1197.
21. CONRAD III.
23. HENRY VI., 1197.
26. FREDERICK II., 1250.
28. CONRAD IV., 1254.
24. PHILIP, 1208.
Hugh, Count of Alsatia.

Gerard, of Lorraine.
Adalbert, 1034.
Gerard, 1046.
Gerard, Duke of Lorraine, 1070.
Gisella.
Frederick, Count of Luxemburg.
Ermensonne.
Henry.
Ermonsonne.
Henry, 1280.
Henry, 1288.
34. HENRY VII., 1313.
John, King of Bohemia, 1346.
37. CHARLES IV., 1378.
38. WENCESLAS, 1419.

Gontram, Count of Hapsburg, 945.
31. RODOLPH, I., descended from Gontram, Count of Hapsburg, elected Emperor, 1273, *d.* 1291.
33. ALBERT I., 1308.
35. FREDERICK, Albert, *the Wise*. 1330.
Albert, *the Astrologer*, 1390.
Albert, *the Patient*, 1404.
41. ALBERT II., 1439.
Leopold.
Ernest, 1427.
42. FREDERICK III. or IV., 1493.
43. MAXIMILIAN I., 1519.
Philip.
Jane of Spain.
40. SIGISMUND, 1437.
44. CHARLES V., Emperor and King of Spain.
45. FERDINAND I., 1564.
46. MAXIMILIAN II., 1576.
47. RODOLPH II., 1612.
48. MATHIAS, 1619
Charles 1596.
49. FERDINAND II., 1637.
50. FERDINAND III. 1657.
51. LEOPOLD I., 1705.
52. JOSEPH I., 1711.
53. CHARLES VI., 1740.
MARIA THERESA
FRANCIS, of Lorraine.

32. Adolphus, Count of Nassau, deposed 1298.
Matilda.
Louis, D. of Bavaria.
Rodolph, 1319.
Adolph, 1327.
Robert II., 1398.
39. RUPERT, 1410.
36. LOUIS V., 1347.
Stephen, 1375.
John, 1397.
Ernest, 1438.
Albert III., 1460.
Albert IV., 1505.
William IV.
Albert V., 1573.
William V., 1626.
Maximilian I., 1651.
Ferdinand, 1679..
Maximilian II., 1626.
54. CHARLES VII., 1745.

55. FRANCIS, descended from Gerard, D. of Lorraine. Elected Emperor, 1745, *d.* 1765.
Maria Theresa, of Austria.
56. JOSEPH II., 1790.
57. LEOPOLD II., 1792.
58. FRANCIS II.

EMPERORS OF AUSTRIA.

1. FRANCIS I., (Francis II. of Germany), 1835.
Caroline Augusta, of Bavaria.

Maria Louisa.
Napoleon I., Emperor of the French.
2. FERDINAND I., abdicated 1848, *d.* 1875.
Mary Anne Caroline Pia, of Sardinia.
Francis Charles.
Sophia, of Bavaria.
Maria Clementina.
Leopold, Prince of Salerno, 1851.
3. FRANCIS JOSEPH I., *b.* 1830.
Elizabeth, *b.* 1837.
Ferdinand Maximilian, Emp. of Mexico, 1867.
Charlotte of Belgium.
Charles Louis.
Annunciada, of Naples.
Louis Joseph Anthony Victor.
Gisella, *b.* 1856.
Rodolph, Prince Royal, *b.* 1858.
Mary Valeria, *b.* 1868.
Leopold of Bavaria
Stéphanie of Saxe Coburg.
Elisabeth.
Ferdinand.
Otho

THE HOUSE OF HOHENZOLLERN AND THE NORTH GERMAN EMPIRE.

PRUSSIA.

Electors of Brandenburg.

FREDERICK, Burgrave of Nuremberg.

1. FREDERICK, first Elector, 1440.

2. FREDERICK II., 1471.

3. ALBERT, 1486.

4. JOHN, 1499.

5. JOACHIM I., 1535.

6. JOACHIM II., 1571.

7. JOHN GEORGE, 1598.

8. JOACHIM FREDERICK, 1608.

9. JOHN SIGISMUND, 1619.

10. GEORGE WILLIAM, 1640.

11. FREDERICK WILLIAM, *the Great Elector*, 1688.

Kings of Prussia.

12. FREDERICK I., 1713.

13. FREDERICK WILLIAM I., 1740.

14. FREDERICK II., *the Great*, 1786.

William Augustus, 1758.

15. FREDERICK WILLIAM II., 1797.

16. FREDERICK WILLIAM III., 1840.
Louisa Augusta, of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, 1810.

17. FREDERICK WILLIAM IV., *b.* 1797; King, 1861; 1861.
Elizabeth of Bavaria.

18. WILLIAM I., *b.* 1797; King, 1861; EMPEROR, 1871.
Maria Louisa Augusta Catharine, of Saxe-Weimar, *b.* 1811.

Charles, *b.* 1801.
Mary of Saxe-Weimar.

Alexandrina, *b.* 1803.
Paul Frederick of Mecklenburg-Schwerin.

Louisa, *b.* 1808.
Frederick of the Netherlands.

Albert, *b.* 1809; *d.* 1872.
Marianne, of Holland.

Frederick William, Crown Prince, *b.* 1831.
Victoria, Princess Royal of Great Britain, *b.* 1840.

Louisa, *b.* 1838.
Frederick, of Baden.

Frederick Charles, *b.* 1828.
Mary of Anhalt, *b.* 1837.

Louisa, *b.* 1829.
Alexis, of Hesse.

Anne, *b.* 1836.
Frederick of Hesse.
Philippsthal Barchfeld, divorced, 1861.

Albert, *b.* 1837.

Alexandrina, *b.* 1842.

Frederick William, *b.* 1859.
Augusta Victoria, of Hohenlohe Langenburg, *b.* 1858.

Charlotte, *b.* 1860.

Henry, *b.* 1862.

Sigismund, *b.* 1864; *b.* 1866.

Victoria, *b.* 1866.

Waldemar, *b.* 1868.

Sophia, Dorothea, *b.* 1870.

Margaret, *b.* 1872.

Mary, *b.* 1855.

Elizabeth, *b.* 1857.

Louisa Margaret, *b.* 1860.

Frederic, *b.* 1865.

Frederick William, *b.* 1882.

Eitel-Frederick, *b.* 1883.

THE KINGDOM OF ITALY ESTABLISHED UNDER VICTOR EMMANUEL II. OF SAVOY.

DESCENT OF THE KINGS OF ITALY.

COUNTS OF SAVOY.

1. BERTHOLD, 1023.
2. HUMBERT, 1048.
   - 3. AMADEUS I. 1047. — Adela. [Not counted by some authors.]
   - 3. OTTO, 1060.
     4. AMADEUS II., 1072.
     5. HUMBERT II., 1108
     6. AMADEUS III., 1149.
     7. HUMBERT III., 1188
     8. THOMAS, 1233.
        - 9. AMADEUS IV.
          10. BONIFACE.
        - Thomas, 1259.
          13. AMADEUS V., 1323.
          - 14. EDWARD, 1329.
          - 15. AIMON, 1343.
            16. AMADEUS VI., 1383.
            17. AMADEUS VII., 1391.
            - Anne. — Emperor Palæologus III.
            - Beatrix. — King of Bohemia.
        - 11. PETER, 1268.
        - 12. PHILIP, Archbishop of Lyons.

Savoy made a Duchy by the Emperor Sigismund, 1416.

DUKES OF SAVOY.

1. AMADEUS VIII., 1451 (Pope Felix V.).
   - 2. LOUIS, 1465.
     - Mary. — Louis III., K. of Naples.
     - 3. AMADEUS IX., 1472.
       - 4. PHILIBERT I., 1482.
       - 5. CHARLES I., K. of Cyprus.
         - 6. CHARLES II., K. of Cyprus.
       - Anne. — Frederick, K. of Naples.
     - 7. PHILIP, *sine terra*.
       - Charlotte. — Louis XI of France.
       - 8. PHILIBERT II., 1504.
       - 9. CHARLES III., 1553.
         10. EMMANUEL PHILIBERT, 1580.
         11. CHARLES EMMANUEL I., 1630.
         - Thomas Francis, Prince of Carignan.
           - Emmanuel Philibert Amadeus, 1709.
             - Victor Amadeus, 1741.
               - Louis Victor, 1778.
                 - Victor Amadeus Louis, 1780.
                   - Charles Emmanuel Ferdinand, 1800.
                     - 7. CHARLES ALBERT, 1849.
                       - 8. VICTOR EMMANUEL II., *b.* 1820. King of Sardinia, 1849; King of Italy, 1861; *d.* 1878.
                         - HUMBERT I. succeeded 1878. — Margaret, Princess of Savoy.
                           - Victor Emmanuel, Prince of Naples, *b.* 1869.
                         - Amadeus Ferdinand Maria, Duke of Aosta, *b.* 1845.
                         - Clotilda, *b.* 1843. — Prince Napoleon Joseph Charles Paul Bonaparte.
                         - Maria Pia, *b.* 1847. — Louis I. King of Portugal.
         - 12. VICTOR AMADEUS I., 1637.
           - 13. FRANCIS Hyacinth, 1638, aged 6 years.
           - 14. CHARLES EMMANUEL II., 1675.

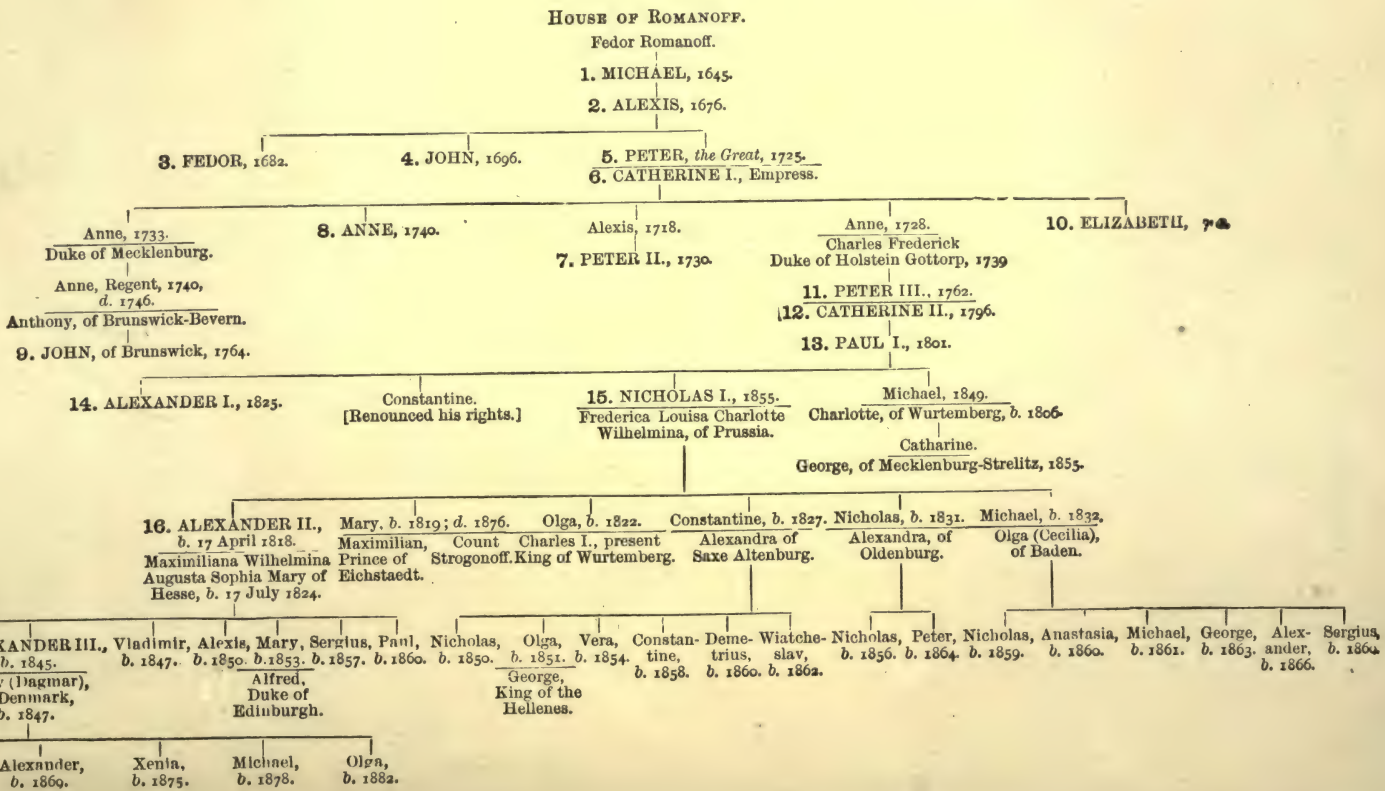
The Duchy of Savoy becomes the Kingdom of Sicily, 1713, of Sardinia, 1720.

KINGS OF SARDINIA.

1. VICTOR AMADEUS II., Abdicated 1730; *d.* 1732.
2. CHARLES EMMANUEL III., 1773.
3. VICTOR AMADEUS III., 1796.
   - 4. CHARLES EMMANUEL IV. Abdicated in 1802.
   - 5. VICTOR EMMANUEL. Abdicated 1821.
   - 6. CHARLES FELIX, *d.* 1831.

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE—FROM THE ACCESSION OF MICHAEL ROMANOFF TO THE PRESENT TIME.

RUSSIA.



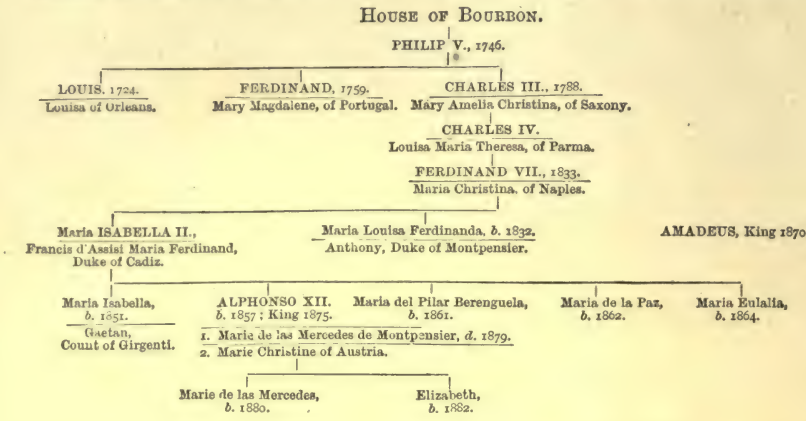
SUCCESSION OF THE POPES OF ROME

(ACCORDING TO THE "ANNUARIO PONTIFICIO.")

	NAME.	NATIVE PLACE.	DATE OF ELECTION.
1.	PETER, Saint and Apostle	Bethsaida	42
	CLEMENT, Saint	Rome	
2.	LINUS, Saint	Volterra	67
3.	CLETUS, or ANACLETUS Saint	Rome	78
4.	CLEMENT I., Saint	Rome	90
5.	ANACLETUS, Saint	Athens	100
6.	EVARISTUS, Saint	Bethlehem	112
7.	ALEXANDER I, Saint	Rome	121
8.	SIXTUS I, Saint	Ividia Rome	132
9.	TELESPHORUS, Saint	Turio, Magna Grecia	142
10.	HYGINUS, Saint	Greece	154
11.	PIUS I., Saint	Aquileia	158
12.	ANICETUS, Saint	Omisa Syria	167
13.	SOTERUS, Saint	Campagna	175
14.	ELEUTHERIUS, Saint	Nicopolis, Epirus	182
15.	VICTOR I. Saint	Africa	193
16.	ZEPHYRINUS, Saint	Rome	203
17.	CALIXTUS I., Saint	Domizia	219
18.	URBAN I., Saint	Rome	227
19.	PONTIANUS, Saint	Calpurnia Rome	233
20.	ANTERUS, Saint	Magna Grecia	238
21.	FABIAN, Saint	Rome	240
22.	CORNELIUS, Saint	Rome	253
	NOVATIANUS, *Anti-Pope*	Phrygia	
23.	LUCIUS I, Saint	Rome	255
24.	STEPHEN I., Saint	Giulia Rome	257
25.	SIXTUS II., Saint	Athens	260
26.	DIONYSIUS, Saint	Magna Grecia	261
27.	FELIX I., Saint	Rome	267
28.	EUTYCHIANUS, Saint	Luni	275
29.	CAIUS, Saint	Solona, Dalmatia	283
30.	MARCELLINUS, Saint	Rome	296
31.	MARCELLUS I., Saint	Rome	304
32.	EUSEBIUS, Saint	Greece	309
33.	MELCHIADES, Saint	Africa	311
34.	SILVESTER I., Saint	Rome	314
35.	MARCUS, Saint	Rome	337
36.	JULIUS I, Saint	Rome	341
37.	LIBERIUS, Saint	Savella Rome	352
	FELIX II., *as Anti-Pope*		355
38.	FELIX II., Saint	Rome	363
39.	DAMASUS, Saint	Spain	366
	URSINUS, *Anti-Pope*		367
40.	SIRICIUS, Saint	Rome	384
41.	ANASTASIUS I, Saint	Massimi Rome	399
42.	INNOCENT I., Saint	Alba	402
43.	ZOSIMUS, Saint	Mesuraca, Greece	417
44.	BONIFACE I., Saint	Rome	418
	EULALIUS, *Anti-Pope.*		418
45.	CELESTINE I, Saint	Rome	423
46.	SIXTUS III., Saint	Rome	432
47.	LEO I., the Great, Saint	Tuscany	440
48.	HILARY, Saint	Cagliari	461
49.	SIMPLICIUS, Saint	Tivoli	468
50.	FELIX III., Saint	Anicia Rome	483
51.	GELASIUS I., Saint	Africa	492
52.	ANASTASIUS II., Saint	Rome	496
53.	SYMMACHUS, Saint	Sardinia	498
	LAURENTIUS, *Anti-Pope*		498
54.	HORMISDAS, Saint	Frosinone	514
55.	JOHN I, Saint	Tuscany	523
56.	FELIX IV., Saint	Samnio	526
57.	BONIFACE II.	Rome	530
	DIOSCORUS, *Anti-Pope.*		
58.	JOHN II. Mercuri	Rome	532
59.	AGAPETUS I., Saint	Rome	535
60.	SILVERIUS, Saint	Campagna	536
61.	VIGILIUS	Rome	538
62.	PELAGIUS I.	Visciani Rome	555
63.	JOHN III	Rome	560
64.	BENEDICT I.	Rome	574
65.	PELAGIUS II.	Rome	578
66.	GREGORY I. the Great, Saint	Anicia Rome	590
67.	SABINIANUS	Volterra	604
68.	BONIFACE III. Catadioci	Rome	607
69.	BONIFACE IV., Saint	Valeria	608
70.	ADEODATUS I., Saint	Rome	615
71.	BONIFACE V. Fumminj	Naples	619
72.	HONORIUS I.	Campagna	625
73.	SEVERINUS	Rome	640
74.	JOHN IV	Zara, Dalmatia	640
75.	THEODORUS I.	Jerusalem	642
76.	MARTIN I., Saint	Todi	649
77.	EUGENIUS I., Saint	Rome	655
78.	VITALIANUS, Saint	Segni	657
79.	ADEODATUS II.	Rome	672
80.	DONUS I.	Rome	676
81.	AGATHON, Saint	Palermo	678
82.	LEO II., Saint	Sicily	682
83.	BENEDICT II., Saint Savelli	Rome	684
84.	JOHN V.	Antioch	685
85.	CONON	Thrace	686
	THEODORUS and PASCHAL, *Anti Popes.*		687
86.	SERGIUS I., Saint	Antioch	
87.	JOHN VI.	Greece	701
88.	JOHN VII.	Rossano	705
89.	SISINNIUS	Syria	708
90.	CONSTANTINE	Syria	708
91.	GREGORY II, Saint Savelli	Rome	715
92.	GREGORY III, Saint	Syria	731
93.	ZACHARIAS, Saint	Santa Severina	741
94.	STEPHEN II.	Rome	752
95.	STEPHEN III.	Rome	752
96.	PAUL I, Saint	Rome	757
	CONSTANTINE THEOPHYLACTUS, *Anti-Pope*	Rome	
97.	STEPHEN IV.	Sicilia	
98.	ADRIAN I. Colonna	Rome	772
99.	LEO III, Saint	Rome	795
100.	STEPHEN V.	Rome	816
101.	PASCHAL I., Saint Massimi	Rome	817
102.	EUGENIUS II.	Rome	824
	ZOZIMUS, *Anti Pope*		
103.	VALENTINUS Leonzio	Rome	827
104.	GREGORY IV.	Rome	827
105.	SERGIUS II. Peter	Rome	844
106.	LEO IV., Saint	Rome	847
107.	BENEDICT III.	Rome	855
	ANASTASIUS, *Anti-Pope.*		855
108.	NICHOLAS I. the Great Saint	Rome	858
109.	ADRIAN II.	Rome	867
110.	JOHN VIII.	Rome	872
111.	MARINUS I.	Gallese	882
112.	ADRIAN III.	Rome	884
113.	STEPHEN VI.	Rome	885
114.	FORMOSUS	Ostia	891
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115.	STEPHEN VII.	Rome	896
116.	ROMANUS	Gallese	897
	SERGIUS, *Anti-Pope.*		
117.	THEODORUS II.	Rome	898
118.	JOHN IX.	Tivoli	898
119.	BENEDICT IV.	Rome	900
120.	LEO V.	Prisqi	903
121.	CHRISTOPHER	Rome	903
122.	SERGIUS III.	Rome	904
123.	ANASTASIUS III.	Rome	911
124.	LANDO	Sabina	913
125.	JOHN X.	Ravenna	914
126.	LEO VI	Rome	928
127.	STEPHEN VIII.	Rome	929
128.	JOHN XI. Tusculani	Rome	931
129.	LEO VII.	Rome	936
130.	STEPHEN IX.	Tuscany	939
131.	MARINUS II.	Rome	942
132.	AGAPETUS II.	Rome	946
133.	JOHN XII. Tusculani	Rome	956
134.	BENEDICT V.	Rome	964
135.	JOHN XIII.	Rome	965
136.	BENEDICT VI.	Rome	972
137.	DOMNUS II.	Rome	973
	BONIFACE VII., *Anti-Pope.*		
138.	BENEDICT VII. Tusculani	Rome	974
139.	JOHN XIV.	Pavia	983
	JOHN XV.		985
140.	JOHN XVI.	Rome	985
141.	GREGORY V.	Tuscany	996
	JOHN XVII., *as Anti-Pope.*		996
142.	SILVESTER II. Gerbert Cesi	France	999
143.	JOHN XVII. Secco	Rome	1003
144.	JOHN XVIII. Fasiano	Rome	1003
145.	SERGIUS IV. Pietro Bocca di Porco	Rome	1009
146.	BENEDICT VIII. Giovanni Tusculani	Rome	1012
	GREGORY, *Anti Pope.*		
147.	JOHN XIX. Tusculani	Rome	1024
148.	BENEDICT IX. Tesoliero Tusculani	Rome	1033
	SILVESTER III., *Anti-Pope.*		1044
149.	GREGORY VI. Giovanni Gratiani	Rome	1044
	JOHN XX., *Anti-Pope*		1058
150.	CLEMENT II. Suidger von Mereseleve-Horneburch	Saxony	1046
	BENEDICT IX, *again*		1047
151.	DAMASUS II. Poppo Baragnari	Bavaria	1048
152.	LEO IX., Saint Bruno von Egesheim	Tuscany	1049
153.	VICTOR II. Gebhard von Kew	Sweden	1053
154.	STEPHEN X. Federigo di Lorena	Tuscany	1057
	BENEDICT X., *Anti-Pope*		1058
155.	NICHOLAS II. Gerard Burgundy		1059
156.	ALEXANDER II. Anselmo da Baggio	Milan	1061
	HONORIUS II., *Anti-Pope.*		1061
157.	GREGORY VII. Hildebrand, Saint Aldobrandeschi	Sosna	1073
	CLEMENT III., *Anti-Pope* Guibert		
158.	VICTOR III. Desiderio Epifani	Benevento	1086
159.	URBAN II. Otho de Chamillon	Rheims	1088
160.	PASCHAL II. Rieri	Iveja	1099
161.	GELASIUS II. Giovanni Caetani	Gaeta	1118
	GREGORY VIII., *Anti-Pope.*		1118
162.	CALIXTUS II. Guy	Burgundy	1119
163.	HONORIUS II. Lamberto Fagnani	Bologna	1124
164.	INNOCENT II. Gregorio Papareschi	Rome	1130
	ANACLETUS II, *Anti-Pope* Pietro Leoni		1130
	VICTOR IV., *Anti-Pope*		1138
165.	CELESTINE II. Guido di Castro	Citta di Castello	1143
166.	LUCIUS II. Gerardo Caccianimici dall' Orso	Bologna	1144
167.	EUGENIUS III. Bernasco Pegnelli	Montemagno	1145
168.	ANASTASIUS IV. Corrado	Rome	1153
169.	ADRIAN IV. Nicholas Breakspere	England	1154
170.	ALEXANDER III. Rolando Bandinelli	Siena	1159
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896	171. LUCIUS III. Ubaldo Allucingoli	Lucca	1181
897	172. URBAN III. Uberto Crivelli	Milan	1185
	173. GREGORY VIII. Alberto de Morra	Benevento	1187
898	174. CLEMENT II. Paolino Scolari	Rome	1187
898	175. CELESTINE III. Giacinto Boboni	Rome	1191
900	176. INNOCENT III. Lothario de' Masmi di Segni	Anagni	1198
903	177. HONORIUS III. Cencio Savelli	Rome	1216
903	178. GREGORY IX. Ugolino di Segni	Anagni	1227
904	179. CELESTINE IV. Goffredo di Castiglioni	Milan	1241
911	180. INNOCENT IV. Sinibaldo di Fieschi	Genoa	1243
913	181. ALEXANDER IV. Rinaldo di Segni	Anagni	1254
915	182. URBAN IV. Jacopo Pantaleone	Troyes	1261
928	183. CLEMENT IV. Guy Foulquois Gros	Saint-Gilles	1265
929	184. GREGORY X. Thibaud Visconti	Piacenza	1271
931	185. INNOCENT V. Pietro di Tarantasia	Tarantaise, Savoy	1276
935	186. ADRIAN V. Ottolone Fieschi	Genoa	1276
939	VICEGOMINUS		1276
943	187. JOHN XXI. Juan Pedro Giuliano	Lisbon	1276
946	188. NICHOLAS III. Giovanni Gaetano Orsini	Rome	1277
956	189. MARTIN IV. Simon de Pris, Monpitie	France	1281
963	190. HONORIUS IV. Giacomo Savelli	Rome	
964	191. NICHOLAS IV. Jeronimo Masci	Lisciano di Ascoli	1288
965	192. CELESTINE V., Saint Pietro Angeleri del Murrone	Isernia	1294
972	193. BONIFACE VIII. Benedetto Caetani	Anagni	1294
973	194. BENEDICT XI. Niccolo Boccasini	Treviso	1303
	195. CLEMENT V. Bertrand de Goth	France	1305
975	196. JOHN XXI. Jacques d' Euse	France	1316
984	197. BENEDICT XII. Jacques Fournier	France	1334
985	NICHOLAS V., *Anti-Pope.*		
985	198. CLEMENT VI. Pierre Roger	France	1342
996	199. INNOCENT VI. Etienne Aubert	France	1352
	200. URBAN V. Guillaume de Grimoard de Beauvoir	France	1362
999	201. GREGORY XI. Pierre Roger	France	1370
1003	202. URBAN VI. Bartolommeo Prignano	Naples	1378
1003	CLEMENT VII., *Anti-Pope* Robert de Geneva		1378
1009	203. BONIFACE IX. Pietro Tomacelli	Naples	1389
1012	BENEDICT XIII., *Anti-Pope* Pietro de Luna		1394
	204. INNOCENT VII. Cosmo de' Migliorati	Sulmona	1404
1024	205. GREGORY XII. Angelo Corario	Venice	1406
1033	206. ALEXANDER V. Pietro Filarco	Candia	1409
1044	207. JOHN XXII. Baldassare Cossa	Naples	1410
1044	208. MARTIN V. Ottone Colonna	Rome	1417
	CLEMENT VIII., *Anti-Pope*		1424
1046	209. EUGENIUS IV. Gabriele Condulmero	Venice	1431
1047	FELIX V., *Anti-Pope* Amadeus VIII., Duke of Savoy		1439
1048	210. NICHOLAS V. Tommaso Parentucelli	Sarzana	1447
1049	211. CALIXTUS III. Alfonso Borgia	Spain	1455
1055	212. PIUS II. Enea Silvio Piccolomini	Siena	1458
1057	213. PAUL II. Pietro Barbo	Venice	1464
1058	214. SIXTUS IV. Francesco d' Albescola della Rovere	Savona	1471
1059	215. INNOCENT VIII. Giovanni Battista Cibo	Genoa	1484
1061	216. ALEXANDER VI. Rodrigo Lenzuoli-Borgia	Spain	1492
	217. PIUS III. Francesco Todeschini Piccolomini	Siena	1503
1073	218. JULIUS II. Giuliano della Rovere	Savona	1503
	219. LEO X. Giovanni de Medici	Florence	1513
1087	220. ADRIAN VI. Adrian Florent	Utrecht	1522
1088	221. CLEMENT VII. Giulio de' Medici	Florence	1523
1099	222. PAUL III. Alessand o Farnese	Rome	1534
1118	223. JULIUS III. Giovanni Maria Ciocchi dal Monte	Monte San Savino	1550
	224. MARCELLUS II. Marcello Cervini	Montepulciano	1555
1119	225. PAUL IV. Giovanni Pietro Carafa	Naples	1555
1124	226. PIUS IV. Giovanni Angelo de' Medici	Milan	1559
1130	227. PIUS V., Saint Michele Ghisleri	Bosco	1566
1130	228. GREGORY XIII. Ugo Buoncompagni	Bologna	1572
1130	229. SIXTUS V. Felice Peretti	Grottamare	1585
1143	230. URBAN VII. Giovanni Battista Castagna	Rome	1590
1144	231. GREGORY XIV. Niccolo Sfondrati	Cremona	1590
1145	232. INNOCENT IX. Giovanni Antonio Facchinetti	Bologna	1591
1153	233. CLEMENT VIII. Ippolito Aldobrandini	Florence	1592
1154	234. LEO XI. Alessandro Ottavi no de' Medici	Florence	1605
1159	235. PAUL V. Camillo Borghese	Rome	1605
1159	236. GREGORY XV. Alessandro Ludovisi	Bologna	1621
1164	237. URBAN VIII. Maffeo Barberini	Florence	1623
1168	238. INNOCENT X. Giovanni Battista Pamfili	Rome	1644
1178	239. ALEXANDER VII. Fabio Chigi	Siena	1655
1181	240. CLEMENT IX. Giulio Rospigliosi	Pistoja	1667
1185	241. CLEMENT X. Giovanni Battista Emilio Altieri	Rome	1670
1187	242. INNOCENT XI. Benedetto Odescalchi	Como	1676
1187	243. ALEXANDER VIII. Pietro Ottoboni	Venice	1689
1191	244. INNOCENT XII. Antonio Pignatelli	Naples	1691
1198	245. CLEMENT XI. Giovanni Francesco Albani	Urbino	1700
1216	246. INNOCENT XIII. Michele Angelo Conti	Rome	1721
1227	247. BENEDICT XIII. Pietro Francesco Orsini	Rome	1724
1241	248. CLEMENT XII. Lorenzo Corsini	Florence	1730
1243	249. BENEDICT XIV. Prospero Lambertini	Bologna	1740
1254	250. CLEMENT XIII. Carlo Rezzonico	Venice	1758
1261	251. CLEMENT XIV. Giovanni Vincenzo Antonio Ganganelli	Sant' Angelo in Vado	1769
1265			
1271	252. PIUS VI. Giovanni Angelo Braschi	Cesena	1775
1276	253. PIUS VII. Gregorio Barnaba Chiaramonti	Cesena	1800
1276	254. LEO XII. Annibale della Genga	Spoleto	1823
1276	255. PIUS VIII. Francesco Saverio Castiglioni	Cingoli	1829
1276	256. GREGORY XVI. Mauro Cappellari	Belluno	1831
1277	257. PIUS IX. Giovanni Maria Mastai Feretti	Sinigaglia	1846
1281	258. LEO XIII. Joachim Pecci	Carpineto	1810

THE SPANISH ROYAL FAMILY.

The present dynasty of the Spanish Monarchs begins with Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV., and Maria Theresa, daughter of King Philip IV. of Spain. Charles II. of Spain, leaving no son, bequeathed the throne to Philip V.



SUCCESSION OF THE PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,

FROM THE ACCEPTATION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

1. GEORGE WASHINGTON	From April 30,	1789,	to March 4,	1793
	,, March 4,	1793	,,	1797
2. JOHN ADAMS	,, ,,	1797	,,	1801
3. THOMAS JEFFERSON	,, ,,	1801	,,	1805
	,, ,,	1805	,,	1809
4. JAMES MADISON	,, ,,	1809	,,	1813
	,, ,,	1813	,,	1817
5. JAMES MUNROE	,, ,,	1817	,,	1821
	,, ,,	1821	,,	1825
6. JOHN QUINCY ADAMS	,, ,,	1825	,,	1829
7. ANDREW JACKSON	,, ,,	1829	,,	1833
	,, ,,	1833	,,	1837
8. MARTIN VAN BUREN	,, ,,	1837	,,	1841
*9. WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON	,, ,,	1841	to April 4,	1841
10. JOHN TYLER	,, April 4,	1841	to March 4,	1845
11. JOHN KNOX POLK	,, March 4,	1845	,,	1849
*12. ZACHARY TAYLOR	,, ,,	1849	to July 9,	1850
13. MILLARD FILIMORE	,, July 9,	1850	to March 4,	1853
14. FRANKLIN PIERCE	,, March 4,	1853	,,	1857
15. JAMES BUCHANAN	,, ,,	1857	,,	1861
*16. ABRAHAM LINCOLN	,, ,,	1861	,,	1865
	,, ,,	1865	to April 15,	1865
17. ANDREW JOHNSON	,, April 15,	1865	to March 4,	1869
18. ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT	,, March 4,	1869	,,	1873
	,, ,,	1873	,,	1877
19. RUTHERFORD B. HAYES	,, ,,	1877	,,	1881
*20. JAMES A. GARFIELD	,, ,,	1881	to Sept. 20,	1881
21. CHESTER A. ARTHUR	,, Sept. 20,	1881		

* Died while in office.

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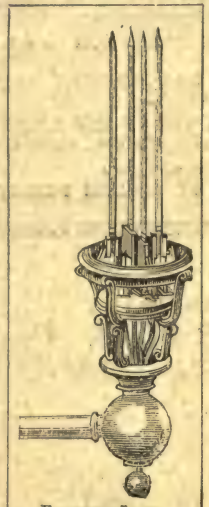
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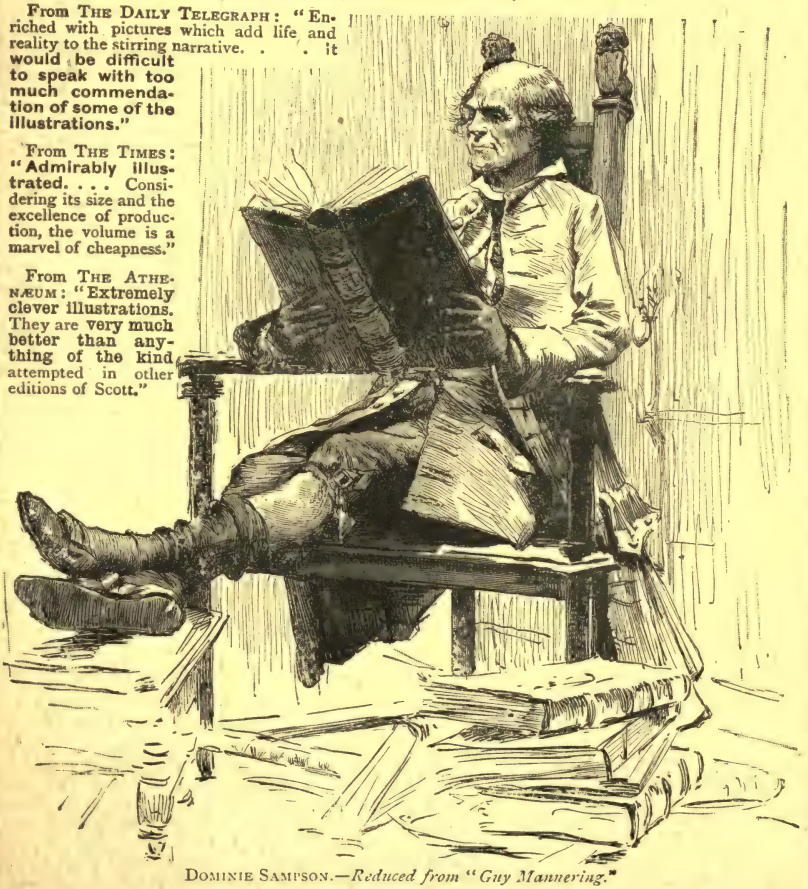
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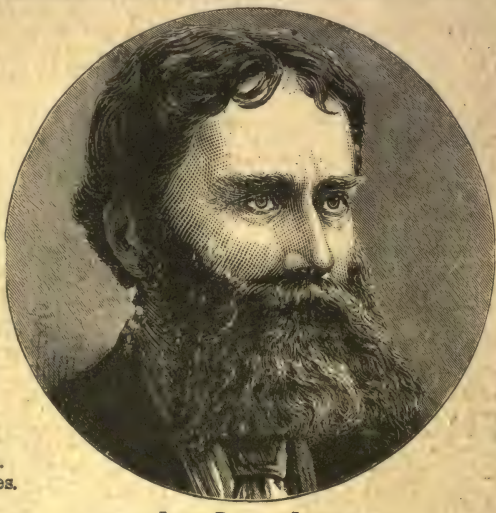
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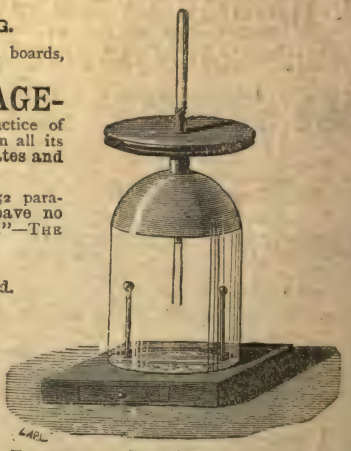
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